The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 10, 1914.

Summary of the News

The week's fighting in Europe has resulted, in the west, in the further advance of the German armies so that their right wing has been almost within range of the outer defences of Paris, and in the east in considerable progress of the Russian offensive. The French Government moved from Paris to Bordeaux on Thursday of last week. The Government was accompanied by most of the members of the *Corps Diplomatique.* Mr. Herrick, however, the Ambassador of the United States, elected to remain in the capital, his opinion being that he could be of more service there to American citizens. Gen. Gallieni, the military commander in Paris, has stated that the city is in a state to withstand a siege. Elsewhere we comment in greater detail on the military situation.

A protocol was signed in London on September 5 by the representatives of Great Britain, France, and Russia, mutually pledging those countries not to conclude peace separately during the present war. The three Governments also agree that "when the terms of peace come to be discussed, no one of the Allies will demand conditions of peace without the previous agreement of each of the other Allies." The protocol was signed, on behalf of England, by Sir Edward Grey; of France, by M. Paul Cambon, and of Russia, by Count Benckendorff.

The position of Turkey remains for the present undefined, and the impression is not without justification that the Ottoman Empire, as was her habit in the old unhappy, far-off days of Abdul Hamid, is waiting to grasp the skirts of happy chance. There have been rumors that the Goeben and Breslau, the German cruisers that were bought by Turkey after taking refuge in the Dardanelles, still retain their German crews, and there have been further reports of German officers passing through Sofia on their way to Constantinople. It is possible, however, that momentary pause has been given to Ottoman ambitions by the attitude of Rumania, which, according to Washington dispatches published on Monday, has officially announced that if she abandons her position of neutrality it will be to follow the course taken by Italy. In the meanwhile, with a view to guarding against attempts to inflame sedition, it is stated that German and Austrian consular officers have been ordered by the British authorities to leave Egypt.

Italy has so far succeeded in guarding her neutrality, and we publish elsewhere some illuminating correspondence on this subject written in the early stages of the war and showing that a policy of neutrality, so far from being the expedient of a harassed Government, was the united will of the people. The general tone of recent dispatches, however, would seem to indicate a growth of public sentiment in favor of the Powers of the Entente, and a significant dispatch was published on Sunday stating that a petition signed by members of the Republican and Socialist parties in the Chamber of Deputies had been presented to the Premier, demanding that Parliament be convoked in order that it might give to the Government "instructions in regard to the grave effects of the international conflict." The memorandum prepared by the signatories of this letter for presentation to the Chamber is extremely anti-Austrian and anti-German in tone.

The Government Merchant Marine bill was ordered favorably reported last week by the House Merchant Marine Committee. We comment elsewhere upon this bill.

As a result of the investigations of the Federal grand jury into the artificial raising of the prices of foodstuffs, thirty-two indictments were returned last week in Washington under the Sherman law.

Representative Thomas W. Hardwick was nominated last week by the State Democratic Convention at Macon, Ga., to fill the unexpired term of the late United States Senator, A. O. Bacon.

President Wilson on Monday addressed letters to the miners and operators concerned in the Colorado mine strike virtually demanding that the long strike be ended. Up to the present no solution has been reached by the two mediators who went to Colorado months ago and have listened to proposals and counter proposals.

The President, on Friday of last week, addressed Congress, in joint session, urging legislation to raise $100,000,000 a year additional revenue through internal taxes to meet a deficit in the Treasury threatened by the European war. He urged the inexpediency of the Government borrowing money to meet the emergency, and recommended immediate legislation on the subject.

An agreement on the disputed points in the Federal Trade Commission bill was reached on Thursday of last week. It has been decided that appeals from decrees of the Commission against corporations shall go direct to the United States Court of Appeals instead of to the district courts, and findings of the Commission shall be regarded as conclusive of fact instead of prima facie. From the decision of the Court of Appeals there shall be no appeal, unless the Supreme Court, upon application, shall grant one.

In the Wisconsin primaries held last week Senator Robert M. La Follette and his followers suffered a surprising defeat—the first since 1900. The nominations were as follows: Republican—For United States Senator, Gov. Francis F. McGovern, Roosevelt candidate for temporary chairman of the Republican National Convention of 1912; for Governor, Emanuel L. Philipp, conservative Republican. Democratic—For United States Senator, P. O. Husting, pledged to the Wilson Administration; for Governor, Judge J. C. Karel, conservative Democrat.

It was announced by the Boston *Post* on Friday of last week that arrangements had virtually been concluded for the purchase by the Government of Mount Washington, including all of the great central peak and its flanks and spurs, together with six other peaks of the Presidential range of the White Mountains and 84,355 acres of land. The purchase price, according to the *Post,* is $737,670.

Premier Asquith on September 4 delivered an impressive speech at the Guildhall of London, in which he reviewed the causes of the war, and called upon the country to furnish recruits for the army. Up to the day on which he spoke, he announced that between 250,000 and 300,000 men had already responded to the call. The Premier was supported by the leader of the Opposition, Mr. Bonar Law, and by the ex-leader of the Unionist party, Mr. A. J. Balfour.

Cardinal Giacomo Della Chiesa, Archbishop of Bologna, was, on September 3, elected Supreme Pontiff by the Conclave of Cardinals which had assembled at Rome on August 31 for the purpose of choosing a successor to Pius X. The new Pope, who has elected to be known as Benedict XV, was crowned in the Sistine Chapel on Sunday. It has been stated that his attitude towards the war, which is said to be one of absolute neutrality towards all the Powers engaged, had something to do with the election of Cardinal Della Chiesa, who only became a member of the Sacred College at the last consistory held by Pope Pius in May of this year. As not infrequently happens, the ultimate choice of the Conclave fell upon one whose name had not even been mentioned among the *papabili.*

That ill-starred monarch, Prince William of Wied—whose name has recently earned distinction by suggesting to the British army a sobriquet for one more important in the destinies of Europe than himself—has at length found the throne of Albania too unstable for further occupancy, at any rate for the present. He departed from his kingdom on September 3 for the neutral shores of Venice, leaving behind him a proclamation in which he expressed his undying affection for the chivalric Albanian people and his intention of returning to rule them at a more auspicious moment.

By the death last week of the Moroccan Raisuli, the world loses the most picturesque and the astutest bandit of modern times. For years Raisuli had been the cause of chronic trouble in Morocco and a particular thorn in the side of the Sultan, Muley Abdul Aziz, but the pinnacle of his career was reached when he kidnapped Ian Perdicaris, an American citizen, and his son-in-law, a British citizen, and, after setting several great Powers by the ears and fetching an American fleet to Tangier, managed to obtain a large ransom and the governorship of the districts around Tangier as the conditions of their release.

The deaths of the week include: John Henry, Baron de Villiers, Chief Justice of the South African Supreme Court, September 2; Leonard E. Opdycke, September 3; Dr. William J. Milne, September 4; Sir Stephen Wilson Furness, Georgine von Januschowsky-Neuendorff, September 6; Joseph Milbank, Col. Alexander Warner, September 7.

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The Week

What President Wilson put before Congress last Friday in such admirable form, Congress and the country are thoroughly prepared to act upon in the spirit of Mr. Wilson's recommendation. As for the need of action to procure an emergency revenue for the Government, it is well that everybody should remember that this is not owing to any general upsetting either of business or of the fiscal routine of the Treasury; it is owing, as the President states, to the cutting off of the customs revenue caused by the cessation of imports from the countries engaged in a world war of unprecedented magnitude. And as for the nature of the action that should be taken, there will be substantially unanimous concurrence in the President's view that this must not take the shape either of borrowing money or of withdrawing Government deposits, at a time when either of these operations would be sure to have the effect of aggravating, instead of alleviating, the strain upon the business interests of the country; and accordingly that it becomes the duty of Congress to levy emergency taxes to make good the falling off in Government revenue caused by the war in Europe.

"The only suggestion I take the liberty to make" as to the nature of the taxation, says the President, "is that such sources of revenue be chosen as will begin to yield at once, and yield with a certain and steady flow." This condition will be completely fulfilled if Congress simply follows the precedent of the war taxation of 1898; of which the stamp taxes and an increase in the tobacco and liquor taxes were the leading features, though something was also accomplished by the imposing of an inheritance tax. These taxes have, in addition to the merit of producing an immediate and a steady flow of revenue, the considerable recommendation that they produce no disturbance of business, are hardly felt as a grievance by anybody, and can be abolished with an equal absence of disturbance or dispute whenever the occasion for their collection shall have passed away. Under the operation of these taxes, the internal revenue receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1899, exceeded those for the preceding year by $103,000,000, and exceeded the average of the preceding five years by $122,000,000. Owing to the growth of population, the like taxes now could be counted on to yield an even larger accession to the revenue, and accordingly much more than the $100,000,000 needed; so that it seems manifestly the part of wisdom for Congress to provide for the present need by reviving such part of the war taxes of 1898 as may be necessary—selecting those features that present the least objection and are the least burdensome to anybody—and to eschew all ventures upon other and more disputable expedients.

Vice-President Marshall, in his statement concerning the Presidential possibilities for 1916, not only expresses with accuracy the existing condition of public sentiment, but puts in brief and excellent form one of the chief reasons for that sentiment. "In my judgment," says the Vice-President, "partisanship will be sunk by the American people in their desire to preserve the blessings of peace." Of course, this must not be taken literally. Even if the Presidential campaign were impending now, instead of being two years off, the American people would divide, in the main, on party lines; but there can be no question that a vast number of those citizens upon whom party ties sit lightly will find in the President's magnificent record as a strong and wise conservator of peace the consideration that will control their political choice. How momentous at the time, how profoundly influential in the nation's future, the difference can be between a policy of firmness and patience like that identified with the name of Woodrow Wilson and that other policy which so many men in his place might have pursued is borne in upon the minds of millions, as never before, by the awful spectacle of the European conflagration. But it is within the Democratic party itself that Mr. Wilson's conquest of opinion has been most complete. In face of the fact that he has grappled with a long series of questions involving the most conflicting interests and prejudices, and has in almost every one of them asserted his own views, and insisted on his own purposes, with extraordinary tenacity, he has behind him to-day a party almost unreservedly attached to his policy and loyal to his leadership. Nobody to-day questions the Vice-President's assertion that Mr. Wilson will have, in 1916, "the enthusiastic, unqualified, and united support of his party."

Kipling's picture of England and France wheeling girth to girth must now include Russia; the agreement signed by the Allied nations Saturday to make war together and peace together has already had an impressive moral effect. Such a break-up of coalitions as occurred more than once in the Napoleonic wars is rendered impossible, and many a German must echo the chagrin expressed in the New York German-American Chamber of Commerce's extraordinary assertion that the treaty proves the perfidy of England, selfishly seeking to restrain France from making a favorable peace in a moment of discouragement. But the unity of the Allies was in reality to be taken for granted. The enthusiastic resistance of the French to the last man, the boundless determination of Russia, the declarations of England that she would beat Germany to her knees if it took the entire weight in men and money of her empire, have been accepted at their full value. If it is necessary to fight a long war, the Allies will persist to the end, in confidence that sheer mass gives them an immense advantage. The greater significance of the treaty is its potential effect upon the disposition of affairs at the end of the struggle. Whatever the outcome, it must make for fairness and an enlightened settlement. The penalties, if paid by the Allies, will be distributed, and not rest with crushing weight on one alone; if by their opponents, England and France may be trusted to put restraining hands upon the arm of Russia.

To the Archbishop of Canterbury's declaration that "the position of an actual combatant in our army is incompatible with the position of one who has sought and received holy orders" two convictions doubtless contributed. One was that of the necessity, which all must recognize, for maintaining the spiritual character of the churchly calling. The other lay in the consciousness that, from country vicar to bishop, all would find in their regular offices at such a time as much as they could undertake. The available positions as army and navy chaplains have long since been filled. The Archbishop's letter invites comparison with the recent message issued by the English Society of Friends, whom the war found in an even greater dilemma. Reiterating their belief that the method of force was no solution of any question, the Quakers were still unflinching in their support of the national cause; they recognized the Government's efforts for peace, and that the moment was "not one for criticism, but devoted service." They went on to declare it "of vital importance that the war should not be carried on in any vindictive spirit," and that England must remember "that we are not going into it to crush and humiliate any nation." Their

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opinions upon the charitable reconstruction of European affairs were also laid down. In time of war, to prepare for peace is obviously the Church's first duty.

The announcement that the 100,000 British who have just enlisted will not be ready for service on the Continent for six months may surprise the public, but it is just what was to be expected. No Government could take these men from counting-room and plough-share, put guns into their hands, and place them on the firing-line against the best trained troops the world has ever seen. The British regiments, moreover, are not capable of expansion like the French and German, and officers are not ready to hand for the new organizations. To rush raw battalions to the Continent would be merely to court disaster. That Lord Kitchener fully realizes this is perfectly apparent from what has been passed by the censor. Meanwhile, however, reinforcements are steadily being sent over to France, where they can join Sir John French. Trained troops from Malta, Gibraltar, perhaps even Cairo, must be on the way, as well as the native Indian troops from China, now supposed to be crossing Canada. But if the war is to continue for any length of time, these will be merely a drop in the bucket; British reliance must be on the volunteers who are rushing to the recruiting offices with unabated enthusiasm.

The Sacred College has sustained its record of making an unexpected choice by naming as the new Pope Cardinal Della Chiesa, Archbishop of Bologna, who has announced that he will be known as Benedict XV. This choice is especially surprising, because the new Pontiff has been a cardinal only since May 30, being one of the last group to be created by Pius X. The last Pope to bear the name of Benedict reigned from 1740 to 1758, and is remembered especially as the author of two bulls prohibiting the practice, extensively adopted by the Jesuits in India and China, of accommodating Christian language and usage to heathen superstitions and ceremonies. Prophecies of the policy of Benedict XV are idle, but in so far as can be judged from the sentiments he has expressed in subordinate positions, he will represent a tendency towards the course of Leo XIII rather than that of the Pope whom he succeeds. He comes to the Papal throne at a stirring time, at just such a time as in former ages would have given him a great opportunity. If he can seize the occasion to restore some of the vanished prestige of the Papacy; if, without impairing his spiritual influence, he can contrive to exert pressure upon the distracted politics of Europe and assist in bringing order out of the present chaos, his name will shine among those of the occupants of his lofty chair.

Carranza's reply to the latest proposal from Zapata, while a rejection of that chieftain's demands, leaves the way open for an agreement that will give the latter the substance of what he wishes. The First Chief can hardly do other than insist upon recognition of his authority as a preliminary to discussion of reforms, but in the same note in which he makes this point he reminds Zapata that he has already signified his willingness that the particular agrarian programme which Zapata holds to shall be adopted wherever needed. He urges Zapata to send delegates to the convention called for October 1 "precisely for the purpose of discussing the programme of reforms which the country needs." If this is in any way a disingenuous invitation, let Zapata make the most of that fact; but unless he can furnish evidence calculated to throw suspicion upon Carranza's fairness in arranging for this convention, he will confirm the worst opinions entertained of him if he refuses to accept the opportunity of presenting his views at what, on its face, is a new and promising development in Mexican affairs. The convention will constitute the first important test of the ability of Mexico, under the leadership of the Constitutionalists, to work out her own salvation.

Last week the Senate passed the Clayton Anti-Trust bill; very greatly improved, indeed, over its original form, but still containing features which at a different time would have been the object of far more earnest opposition. The ambiguous, as well as dangerous, labor clause went through with the rest. A few months ago, it was being vigorously denounced as an unworthy piece of legislation, whatever be the true meaning of its vague language. It is either a "gold brick" to labor leaders of the Gompers type or an odious piece of class legislation; and, whether it be the one or the other, it is slipped through by the unfair device of being represented to the organized-labor men as giving them all they want and to opponents of class legislation as adding nothing to what organized labor already has. The time is very likely to come when this cowardly dodge will return to plague some of the men responsible for its adoption.

President Wilson has placed before the opposing sides in the Colorado mine trouble a proposal designed to end a condition of things which is recognized throughout the country to be disgraceful and intolerable. In the letter which he has addressed to the presidents of the leading mining companies and to the officers of the United Mine Workers of America, the President sets forth the nature of the situation in language wholly free from offence to either side, and yet making quite clear the urgent need of bringing it to a speedy close. The tentative proposal which accompanies the President's letter was drawn up by the Federal Conciliation Commissioners. It is manifestly inspired by the purpose of presenting a scheme to which each side can subscribe with the feeling that its interests and contentions received all the consideration possible if a basis of conciliation was to be found at all. Both sides are asked to pledge themselves to a three years' truce, based upon conditions now laid down. The guardianship of those conditions is to be placed in the hands of three Commissioners to be appointed by the President, one a representative of the workers, one of the owners, and the third representing neither party; and the decisions of this Commission shall be final. Of the conditions themselves, the salient features are: "enforcement of the mining and labor laws of the State"; restoration to work of "all striking miners who have not been found guilty of violation of the law"; prohibition of intimidation of either union or non-union laborers; no mine guards on the one hand, and no interference with the working of the mines by picketing, parading, etc., on the other; no suspension of work pending the investigation of any matter in dispute. Any grievance alleged by workmen is to be submitted, first, by the individual workmen to the proper officer of the company; if this does not bring about an adjustment, a standing local grievance committee of the workmen is to take it up with the company; finally, if this fails, the dispute is to be submitted to the Commission of Three for definitive settlement.

Intensive utilization of our natural resources has not been one of our characteristics, but our progress in that direction in some fields is shown in a timely Government Bulletin on our mineral reserves, which bears the journalistic sub-title, "How to Make America Industrially Independent." Zinc is one of the minerals most seriously threatened by the war, as the great smelting centres of Continental Europe are in regions

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of active fighting. Fortunately, our own smelting capacity has been increasing faster than consumption, as is indicated by the growing size of the stock on hand. The extent to which we have made ourselves independent of foreign cement is shown by the fact that twenty years ago our domestic product was less than one-fifth of our consumption, while last year our imports of cement were less than one-tenth of our consumption, and our exports were between thirty and forty times our imports. Much has been said of the cutting off of the world's supply of potash, since no commercial source of potash salts is known outside of Germany. The Government, through the Geological Survey and the Department of Agriculture, has been endeavoring to locate deposits of these salts in this country. It has investigated places from New York to California, and from Michigan to Louisiana. How important the finding of native sources of these materials would be is indicated by the magnitude of our imports of them, which have been averaging a million tons a year, with a value of $15,000,000.

New Hampshire's first direct Senatorial primary leaves Senator Gallinger, a Republican whose record of wrongheadedness has just been capped by his anti-Japanese outbreaks, facing in Congressman Stevens one of the most determined and able of opponents. The Progressive nominee, B. F. Greer, is negligible. Senator Gallinger made his race alone; there were three Democratic candidates for the nomination, and the Republicans are already making capital of the fact that Stevens is a "minority candidate." But there is every reason to believe that the party is united behind him, and that he will attract independent voters. In the State he is regarded as a chief factor in the throwing off of the railway yoke by the Legislature some years ago. In Congress his record on the floor and as an efficient member of the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce is as creditable as Senator Gallinger's in the upper chamber has been objectionable. No small part of the alterations of the Trust bills for the better are due to his suggested amendments. In a State almost inveterately Republican in prejudice, and one in which the press shows very few Democratic organs, Mr. Stevens's campaign must rest essentially on his personal record and merits; and the prospect is that the contest will be of unusual interest.

By what strange fate do Uncle Joe Cannon and Senator Tillman display a familiarity with the Bible that is apparently denied their less tempestuous colleagues? Whatever the reason, the result is an occasional picturesqueness of language that Mr. Bryan's more solemn use of the same source seldom manifests. In 1910 Tillman wired Blease, the nominee for Governor of South Carolina, in these words: "Congratulations; let the heathen rage." Then came the break between the two men, and in 1912, after the conclusion of a campaign in which Tillman apologized for ever having helped raise Blease to the Governorship, the latter retorted the Senator's language of two years before in this dispatch: "Let the heathen rage. They still rage." Now, with Blease defeated for the Senatorial nomination, it is Tillman's turn again, and so the latest of the series of telegrams conveys the Senator's compliments in this way: "The heathen still rages, but the people rejoice. See Deuteronomy 3 : 2-15. Good-bye." The passage relates the story of the capture of Og, King of Bashan: "and we smote him until none was left to him remaining." Evidently we have here some of the Old Testament spirit as well as its phraseology.

The experiment of the Bellevue Hospital, of New York, with the "twilight sleep" method of childbirth has received a publicity representing it as an innovation, a trial of something new. It signifies, on the contrary, a resumption of interest, caused by recent improvements and recent magazine articles on the work of Drs. Koenig and Gauss, of Freiburg, Germany, in a method known since 1902. The preponderance of American opinion has hitherto regarded with distrust the use of scopolamine, mainly on the score of safety. The *Outlook*, for example, lists Dr. Vaughan, president of the American Medical Association; Dr. Green, of Harvard, and Dr. Williams, of Johns Hopkins, as hostile; and states that Dr. De Lee, of Northwestern, studied the method at Freiburg disapprovingly, and found that "the famous maternities of Berlin, Vienna, Munich, and Heidelberg had discarded the plan." There come, however, counterbalancing expressions of enthusiasm from European and American hospitals, one of the latter being the Jewish Maternity Hospital in New York, with 120 cases. If the perfected method accomplishes the blessing it claims, it cannot too rapidly be diffused over the country. But hasty newspapers should realize the mischief and cruelty possible through the breeding of false hopes and the stimulation of rash action concerning a matter which is as yet only experimental.

A review of Butte conditions in the last issue of the Socialist *New Review* admits that the cause of the persistent rioting is, along with internal labor-organization disputes, a growth of radical ideas "ranging from comparatively orderly parliamentary Socialism to the most extreme anarchism." The outbreak of three months ago was directed against the property and officials of the Western Federation; the new assaults have been mainly against the private property of the Amalgamated Copper Company. That anarchistic ideas and a labor-union quarrel should repeatedly endanger orderly industrial development is a condition justifying not merely martial law, but the sternest repressive measures. To take this view it is not necessary to assume that all the wrong is on one side. The mine owners' conduct may have been provocative at some points, and they and State and city politicians may have tampered with the workers' union. The point is that the menace to property and life comes from men who quarrel with those who would attempt an orderly correction of affairs, and from men who are imbued with syndicalist ideas and worse. The State National Guard should be able to cope with the situation, and State effort should be made to ferret out agitators who will otherwise wait only a new opportunity.

The forfeiture by two Canadian Senators of their seats for non-attendance parallels our difficulties with a Congressional quorum; and were the Dominion not engrossed with war, it would give new strength to a latent public indignation with the upper body. One other Senator saved his seat only by joining the recent emergency session, and four have one more chance. The Chamber contains a proportion of serious members, but the majority attend just sufficiently to hold their places, and there is always a group utterly indifferent to public affairs. Each member being allowed $2,500 for the session, with a deduction of only $15 daily for absences, a record of neglect during short sessions is an even more palpable cheat upon the public purse than our own Congressmen's habit of claiming $21 per day for services unperformed. The obvious and natural remedy for the whole unsatisfactory state in the Canadian Senate is its transformation into an elective body. The Senators, as nominated for life by the Governor-General, are almost invariably political appointees. But to such a change, or to abolition of the Senate, the great obstacle is the Canadians' perplexity as to how their Constitution can be amended.

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FORTY-FOUR YEARS AGO.

It is, above all, the moral and political side—the human side—of what happened at and after Sedan that forces itself upon the mind of him who in this present month travels back in memory to the days of that other September. What was the feeling then of those who, in other lands, had wished success to the German arms? What fruits for the German nation and for all mankind did they look forward to as the result of a victory unmatched for splendor and completeness in the annals of war? The new German Empire was about to be born; and it was clear that Germany was thenceforth to take the place of France as the leading Power of the Continent. The pinchbeck imperialism of the third Napoleon, and that higher, but yet pernicious, tradition embodied in the French devotion to martial glory, were alike prostrate in the dust; what was to take their place? What example was German civilization going to set, what better ideals and purposes was she going to make dominant in Europe?

Let us turn to the *Nation* of September 15, 1870. In all the world, there was no more stanch, as there was no abler, champion of the German cause than Mr. Godkin. To his mind, that cause was not only just in itself, but was the cause with which were bound up the highest hopes of civilization. The proclamation of the Republic, after the *débâcle* of the Empire at Sedan, did not change his attitude a jot; he had nothing but scorn for the "sentimentalists" who permitted it to affect their judgment. In the number of the *Nation* to which we have referred, issued two weeks after Sedan, the leading article is entitled "The Terms of Peace." There is no sparing of France as the under dog; it is unflinchingly urged that "in the interest of justice and morality there should be no tenderness" in exacting from France "the cost of the war to the uttermost farthing"; but on the great question, the crucial question as to the future, this is what Mr. Godkin says:

> The Germans owe it to the better civilization they profess, and we believe truly, to defend and spread; and to the public opinion of all other countries, which has up to the present sympathized with and applauded them, to show moderation in the hour of their triumph. We do not ask them to spare France on the ridiculous plea that the Republic is not responsible for the dying sins of the Empire, or that, the Empire being gone, there is nothing to be feared any more from French ambition or aggressiveness or restlessness—a plea which the whole course of French history belies; but in the interest of future peace, and in the interest of that orderly and intellectual progress of which the world now expects Germany to set the example. All absorption of territory, whose inhabitants are not German in feeling as well as in origin, will not only lay Prussia open to the charge of rapacity in carrying on the war, but furnish France with a far more respectable motive in preparing for a renewal of the struggle at no distant day than the bitterness which mere defeat is sure to leave behind.

It is melancholy, it is awful, to contrast the thought of the world about Germany to-day with that expressed in this representative utterance of forty-four years ago. Instead of "that orderly and intellectual progress" of which the world then expected "Germany to set the example"—an example she was so admirably fitted to set, an example which, in so many respects, she actually has set—all her intellectual and moral greatness has been thrown into the background by the relentless spread of an all-overshadowing militarism. The imposition of the German yoke upon the people of Alsace and Lorraine, accompanied as it has been with that sanctifying of "la revanche" to the French mind which Mr. Godkin forecast, was but the first manifestation of the spirit of military domination; from that time to this, it has been the dominant element in the thoughts of the ruling class of Germany. What has come of it for the world, the unspeakable horrors of to-day bear witness; and for Germany herself, what is the prospect? If she wins, a world-domination to be maintained more than ever by the divine right of the bayonet and the dynamite bomb; if she loses, that terrible downfall which the unflinching logic of von Bernhardi recognized as the unescapable penalty of failure.

What a situation is this for the people who, in their struggle in the last century, commanded so generally the sympathy of the world as truly representing "the better civilization they profess to defend and spread." To-day, millions who have never thought of Russia except with loathing and dread are actually turning to her to save the world from a nearer danger. To-day when one says Germany, one means the mailed fist of the Kaiser and the crunching heel of his military satraps. All the glories of Germany in science, in letters, in music, in the advancement of human happiness through medicine and sanitation and civic improvement, are forgotten in the absorbing resentment for what the Kaiser has brought on the world, the absorbing dread of what he threatens to bring on it. How different would have been the state of Europe if the thoughts of the wise and humane had prevailed instead of the demands and the limitless ambitions of the militarist and the imperialist! And how infinitely more secure would Germany herself have been, not only in her national greatness, and not only in the happiness and prosperity of millions, but also in the assurance of permanent existence as a leading nation of the world—an existence that will tremble in the balance for many a bloody month, whatever the fortunes of war may be at this moment in the fields of Picardy or on the banks of the Vistula.

PROTECTIONISM AND WAR.

Among the principles making for peace which Dr. Charles W. Eliot, reviewing in a letter to the New York *Times* the broad questions connected with the great war, enumerates as represented by the American people is that of "the open door—which means nothing more than that all nations should be allowed to compete on equal terms for the trade of any foreign people, whether backward or advanced in civilization." But there is a broader principle—a principle capable of far profounder influence on international feeling—which, if it had made the headway in general acceptance that its advocates at one time had reason to hope for, would have insensibly impressed upon the instinctive thoughts and habitual impulses of the nations a character immeasurably different from that which has actually obtained. We refer to the principle of free trade. The movement which made so signal a beginning in England under the leadership of Cobden and Bright, and which, for a number of years, seemed to give promise of gradually spreading over the whole Western world, came to a standstill in the early seventies; and the memory of that movement as it was in its palmy days has faded out. Accordingly, there are now few in this country, or perhaps even in England, who are aware that it was imbued with something more than the spirit of commercial and industrial gain—that it was animated also by the high and far-reaching purpose of fostering in the nations a spirit of friendship and mutual helpfulness.

For evidence of this, one need hardly go farther than the cover of the Cobden Club publications, on which was imprinted the motto "Free Trade, Peace, Good Will among Nations." In the article on Cobden in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," we find it stated that "Cobden's efforts in furtherance of free trade were always subordinated to what he deemed the highest of moral purposes—the promotion of peace on earth and good will among men." Turning to John Morley's

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biography of the free-trade leader, it is interesting to note how early in his career this identification of the cause of free trade with that of peace presented itself to Cobden's mind. "It has struck me," he wrote to Mr. Ashworth in 1842, "that it would be well to try to engraft our Free Trade agitation upon the Peace movement. They are one and the same cause. It has often been to me a matter of the greatest surprise that the Friends have not taken up the question of Free Trade as the means—and I believe the only human means—of effecting universal and permanent peace. The efforts of the Peace Societies, however laudable, can never be successful so long as the nations maintain their present system of isolation."

That this may be an extreme view we do not deny; and in so far as it rested upon the connection between protectionism and the desire for colonial expansion, it may justly be urged that Cobden did not take into account other grounds besides the desire for exclusive trade privileges which account for national strivings and ambitions in that direction. But on the other hand, we do not believe that even Cobden or Bright overestimated—we doubt whether they even estimated highly enough—the power of the free-trade idea on the one hand, and of the protectionist idea on the other, so to mould the thought of nations as to make all the difference between the spirit of peace and good will and the spirit of jealousy and enmity. Habitually to think that what is one nation's gain is another nation's loss; that to give free scope to the sale of your neighbor's products is to choke off the opportunity of your own people; that the operations of commerce, instead of being transactions in which both parties are gainers, are in the nature of a constant struggle of the one side or the other for "supremacy"—this is the insidious, but none the less powerful, daily teaching of protectionism. If instead of the reaction towards this mediæval notion of international relations which the last three decades of the nineteenth century witnessed, the world had, during the past four decades, become more and more habituated to the thought of trade between nations as an opportunity for mutual gain, the freer the more beneficent; if the idea of the "open door" had come to be regarded not merely as a political expedient, a means of avoiding quarrels in distant fields of exploitation, but as a principle based on common-sense and the common interest—who shall say how much would have been taken away of what has gone to the fomenting of international jealousy and bitterness?

Those who talk so glibly about economic causes being at the bottom of all the developments of history would do well to give their attention to the part which, even in the economic field, is played not by the economic causes themselves, but by the ideas which men entertain in regard to those causes. If the South had known that slavery was not essential to her economic prosperity, there would have been no Civil War; and it is not an overbold supposition that, if the nations of the world had been emancipated from the delusions of protectionism, the passions and prejudices which have had their part in bringing on the unspeakable horrors of the world war of to-day might never have attained the intensity that made such a calamity possible.

GOVERNMENT PURCHASE OF FOREIGN SHIPS.

Whatever may be said regarding the dangers, political and economic, of engaging the Federal Government in the purchase and operation of ships in the trans-oceanic trade—and there is much to say on that consideration—there are certain other aspects of the matter which must be investigated with the utmost care before any such experiment is undertaken. We submit that Congress has no right to authorize such procedure by the Government until it has satisfied itself and the country on three points. One is, whether this new supply of ships is peremptorily needed. The second is, whether the ships available for purchase would be suited for the very purposes of trade which are contemplated. The third is, whether our Government would or would not create a delicate and dangerous situation, if it should buy and operate—even as majority shareholder in an operating corporation—ships which are at present owned by belligerent interests.

None of these questions has yet been properly canvassed, so that the public at large may understand exactly what is now proposed. As against the argument that we have not ships enough available for our foreign trade, it is answered, in quarters at least entitled to respect, that with trade to Continental Europe largely suspended, and with great unsettlement in plans for neutral commerce, even our present ships are unable to get full cargoes. As against the argument that we ought to use the idle German Lloyd and Hamburg Line vessels, it is objected in similar quarters that these ships are built primarily for a passenger traffic which does not now exist, and which cannot be created; that they would have to be reconstructed to make them a profitable commercial undertaking in the transportation of freight, and that, by their size and length, they are adapted only to the European trade. The further and very grave political reasons against this purchase of the German ships, and especially against their operation by our Government, is familiar to every one. At least the possibility of a most dangerous diplomatic situation would be involved in such an undertaking.

The first duty of Congress, then (if it feels bound to consider the project further), is to summon to a public hearing the best authorities—shippers, merchants, and authorities on international law—who can place at the disposal of Congress their expert opinion on these several considerations. If this is not done, and if Congress and the public do not hear both sides, from the best authority obtainable, then we shall be taking a leap in the dark, engaging in an experiment which may involve the gravest consequences.

To President Wilson we feel that these considerations of prudence and foresight ought to appeal with peculiar force. Whether viewed from the standpoint of domestic policy or from that of international relations, it is clear that the graver and more far-reaching elements in the problem have an importance so vital that only the most unimpeachable demonstration of immediate need and the most convincing showing of immediate efficacy should be allowed to weigh against them. Neither of these things has thus far been forthcoming; not even, so far as we are aware, anything distantly approaching them. The President's desire that something be done at this time to promote American commerce is shared by the country generally; and his interest in the promotion of this legislation is understood by everybody as a manifestation of the earnestness of that desire. But it would be a thousand pities if he should make himself responsible for the enactment of a piece of hasty legislation that, after the hurry of the moment is over, would be found to have done grave injury to great principles to which his devotion is unquestioned, and to which he has done signal service—the principle of holding the country's interest in peace and international good will superior to its interest in special commercial and financial opportunities, and the principle of upholding, so far as possible, independent and individual enterprise as against Government paternalism.

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THE DEMOCRATS AND CONGRESS.

President Wilson's determination to make no speeches in the coming Congressional campaign, as stated in his letter to Representative Doremus, will meet with general approval. It is in keeping, too, with his entire conduct since he entered the White House. This has exhibited a degree of undeviating devotion to the duties of the office, a sense of responsibility for seeing that no harm shall come to the Republic through want of the most watchful attention on the part of its executive head, which has seldom been equalled. Something more, too, than the fear that the public business might suffer through any diversion of his time or energy to the demands of a political campaign is to be seen underlying the President's words. Impressed as he is with the critical importance to our own welfare, and not impossibly to the welfare of the nations now engaged in a titanic war-grapple, which attaches to the observance of precisely the right conduct in this extraordinary situation, Mr. Wilson doubtless feels that any unnecessary thrusting forward of his party attachments is to be avoided. In all that relates to the large questions of national policy having no partisan character, he wishes to exercise upon the whole people all the influence belonging to the head of the nation, not the head of a party; and the making of campaign speeches is not calculated to promote this end.

The President justly says that the Democrats are in a position to go to the country with an appeal "in which there need be no pretence or boast of any kind, but a plain statement of things actually accomplished." The record, he says, "shows us at peace with all the world"; and, dismissing with these eight words that phase of the situation, he goes on to speak of the legislative achievements of the prolonged sessions of Congress since the Government passed into Democratic control. But though so briefly dismissed by Mr. Wilson, and though it may not be desirable that it should form the theme of much campaign oratory, the fact that we are at peace with all the world is sure to weigh mightily with thousands of voters. They will be inclined, other things being equal, to make their vote for members of Congress a vote of approval for the Administration which, in the face of all possible discouragement, by skill and patience and firmness averted a war that seemed all but absolutely upon us; and averted it not only without loss of national prestige, but with a great gain for the position of the country in its relations with the South American republics. The unspeakable calamity that has befallen Europe, the horrors that every day brings before the eyes of us all as we read the newspapers, cannot fail to impress upon multitudes of honest and right-minded men a realizing sense of the debt our country owes to President Wilson's moral and intellectual strength in dealing with the Mexican crisis; and the influence of this sentiment can hardly fail to be felt in the fortunes of the party of which he is the unanimously acknowledged leader.

The campaign, however, must, of course, primarily rest upon the record of Congress. And it may safely be said that the Democrats will in this regard be in a position very different from that which has so often in recent years confronted either party in Congressional campaigns. On the two great subjects upon which public attention has been chiefly centred, they will not be in the position of a party on the defensive. In 1890, after the enactment of the McKinley tariff, the Republicans found themselves face to face with a wave of public resentment; and the pitifully apologetic character of their campaign of 1910, after the passing of the Payne-Aldrich tariff, is still fresh in everybody's mind. Between these came the Dingley tariff, it is true, which brought about no such state of the public mind; but that was immediately after the Democratic free-silver *débâcle* of 1896, from which the party was many years in recovering anything like its normal condition, and which gave the Republicans free swing to do as they pleased during a long period. Leaving this out as abnormal, it may be said that every tariff law, except the present one, enacted in the past quarter-century—including the Wilson-Gorman act of 1894—was followed by a tremendous reaction against the party responsible for it; but in the present instance, though there has of course been a certain amount of discontent and complaint, no such change in the country's temper is at all discernible.

The Banking and Currency bill was second only—if second at all—to the Tariff bill in the attention centred upon it by the country; and here the contrast with previous experiences is even more marked. Here the Democrats have, on the face of things, the credit of having dealt, in a manner that commands almost universal approval, with a problem which has for decades been regarded as in the highest degree urgent, and with which, nevertheless, Congress after Congress had found itself impotent to grapple. A just analysis would assign to those previous unsuccessful efforts a large share in bringing about the final result; in particular, it would recognize that the efforts of Senator Aldrich, the labors of his Monetary Commission, and the exertions of many men instrumental in the long campaign of education, were essential to the success finally achieved this year. But the fact remains that the actual attainment of that result—the enactment of a vital monetary and banking reform, and one free from a score of bad features which threatened to be incorporated in it—was the work of a Democratic Administration and a Democratic Congress. The old cry that the Republican party is the only one fit to govern the country—the great stock-in-trade of the G. O. P. spellbinders—will not be heard this year, or, if heard, will provoke only a smile. Whatever may prove to be the outcome of the elections, the Democratic spokesmen can go into the campaign with heads erect. They can, without boasting, point with solid satisfaction to the record of President Wilson and of a Democratic Congress which, though far from perfect—as witness its failure to keep its pledges of economy, and its encroachments upon the merit system in the civil service—has measured up to a very high standard of legislative duty.

THE RIGHT NOTE IN THE PHILIPPINES.

> I believe that the Government here was out of sympathy with the people and that he [Governor-General Harrison] has brought it into sympathy with them. I believe that the Government here was upside down, and he has turned it right side up.

In these words Commissioner Winfred T. Denison, in a recent address in the Philippines, defined his position and upheld the policy of the President as carried on by Mr. Harrison. Addressed to the American colony in Manila, which was, and probably still is, bitterly opposed to Mr. Denison, it aroused the utmost bitterness in the mushroom American press of the capital. So opposed were the editors that, if we are correctly informed, it appeared at length only in the native press. Such treasonable sentiments could not find a place in American columns, and from that time forth the vials of wrath were emptied upon Mr. Denison's offending head.

It is not difficult, on reading his speech, to find out wherein lies Mr. Denison's wrongdoing. He has taken the extraordinary position that he and his associates are really in the Philippines to administer the islands for the Filipinos' benefit, and not for the Americans'. Such treason to the existing order

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naturally made the welkin ring. It has been the habit to say glibly that the Filipinos' land is theirs, and then to add, "but I have never really believed in this policy of turning over the islands to them." We remember that to one official who, after some time in the islands, still believed in the rights of the Filipinos, a compatriot said: "Everybody that comes out here thinks for a while that these people ought to be treated like human beings, but they soon get over that." Well, Mr. Denison's beliefs in democracy and human brotherhood seem to have survived some months in the archipelago, for we find him asking these searching questions: "Are we to commit the absurdity of trying to teach democracy by exhibiting an autocracy? Are we to stand before the world as crusaders of a democracy backed with bayonets? Are we to stand before the world for the proposition that we are for democracy for ourselves, but not for the other fellow?"

Well, even these high-flown, Declaration of Independence sentiments might have been forgiven in this young gentleman if delivered with a wink, and if only he had stopped there. But he made to shiver the pocket nerves of the Americans of the Manila City Club who heard him, for he laid down the theory that the Filipinos' taxes ought to be spent as they, and not their rulers, thought best. He gave a knock-out blow to the idea that the Filipinos "ought to want" certain things, and whether they did or did not, they were to have them. He actually stated that, aside from the primary essentials of order and sanitation and international obligations, it is the Americans' duty to spend the Filipinos' money for what they want, whenever there is a difference of opinion between them and the American administrators of that particular hour. Of course, the American business man saw what that meant—recognizing the Filipino as a thinking animal with some rights in his government. It was as if some one had risen in meeting in Atlanta, Georgia, and said that negro Americans ought not to be taxed without representation in their government. The monopoly of the white race was jeopardized at once. Treat a dark-skinned man like a human being? The whole structure of Anglo-Saxon civilization totters at the thought.

The joke of it all is that when Mr. Denison was on the way to his post they called him "the white man's hope"—because he had been a Republican, and is a Progressive, and not a Democrat like his associates of Mr. Wilson's choosing, and it was expected he would uphold the Taft-Forbes policy. After this speech he was the white man's hope no longer. Those wretched Filipinos have actually called him their George Washington, their Lincoln; they have dwelt on the fact that no other American official in the fourteen years of our occupancy has admitted that the Americans could learn something from the Filipinos. Mr. Denison has been learning from them by going among them to ask their wishes. When he reached Manila he found that 14,000 Philippine dollars were being spent to print the results of ethnological research into the habits of the Bukidnons and other non-Christian tribes, when there was no money to provide 40,000 people in Palawan with a single doctor; when the Palawan Moros were without a school-teacher, and the Culion leper colony was desperately in need of two more nurses and $50 a month spending money. Mr. Denison cut out the 14,000 dollars for ethnological research and 500 more for photographing molluscs—and his official head is still upon his shoulders!

Being ourselves recreant to the theory that the Filipinos exist only to be guided and exploited by Americans, we confess to unbounded satisfaction that there is such an official at Manila as Mr. Denison. It is, as we have often pointed out, all in the point of view. We have been criticised because we declined to take the former Governor-General, Mr. Forbes, at his own and his friends' estimate. The trouble with him was his point of view; a sufficient indictment of his administration was that never in his years of service did he give utterance to such sentiments or assume such a pro-Filipino attitude as Mr. Denison's. As a British Governor-General Mr. Forbes would have been a thoroughgoing success; as an American, he gave no evidence that he was imbued with the true principles of democracy upon which this republic was founded, and which ring through all of Mr. Denison's speech. Somehow or other, since Mr. Taft quitted the islands, we have had no genuine *rapprochement* between natives and Americans. An austere school-masterly attitude of our officials, conscious or unconscious, has intensified the natural suspicion and the inability of the Filipinos to appreciate in fullest degree just what are the motives behind our policies. We cannot but hope that Mr. Denison's attitude will be that of the entire Manila Government.

In these days when we are beholding millions led to slaughter by rulers without much reference to their wishes or desires, is it not a breath of inspiration, a cause for rejoicing and fresh courage, that, thanks to Mr. Wilson, we seem to have at last a government in Manila which really seeks to be the servant and not the master of the governed?

Chronicle of the War

The precision and rapidity of the German advance through Belgium and across Northern France has so startled the imagination of the world that in the past few days there has been exhibited a disposition in many quarters to believe that there is nothing which that amazing fighting machine cannot achieve. Since August 23, when the Germans entered Namur, up to last Saturday, when their lines were close to the guns of Paris, they had advanced a distance of 175 miles. Namur, Lille, La Fère, Laon, and Rheims were successively taken or abandoned without resistance. We have the testimony of British accounts that so rapid was the German advance that the retreating British forces on the left wing were at times compelled to march at five miles an hour. Nothing, it seemed, could stop this impetuous rush. If Namur fell in two days and other fortresses were abandoned, why should not the same onward sweep carry the German attack over the fortifications of Paris?

It is unnecessary now to point out against the argument that fortifications are no check to German progress, that if Namur fell, or was abandoned for strategic reasons, Liège and Longwy offered a stubborn resistance, and Maubeuge is still holding out. The German armies have themselves replied to that contention by the movement away from Paris in a southeasterly direction that was begun towards the end of last week. To suppose that Paris is susceptible of being taken by assault is to believe the German army not the highly perfected fighting machine that it unquestionably is, but a force endowed with supernatural powers. Great as has been the achievement of the German troops, that of the Allies has been hardly less remarkable. It would not have been surprising if the continuous retreat that they have been making for close on three weeks had been turned into a rout. So far from that having happened, the army remains intact, and the determined attempts of the Germans to turn the left flank have been frustrated and have now been definitely abandoned. Furthermore, information from all sources, including a significant letter from the Berlin correspondent of the Associated Press published on Tuesday, agrees that the German losses have been out of all proportion to those of the Allies.

With the sweep of the German armies towards the southeast and away from Paris, we enter the third stage of the operations in the west, the first and second having been the initial operations in Belgium and the great drive through Northern France. Again it is necessary to draw attention to the fact that the news that reaches us often alludes to events that occurred two or three days previously. When we wrote last week, for instance, we assumed that the French line ran from somewhere between Amiens and Peronne, on the Somme, through La Fère and Laon, to Rheims. An isolated dispatch on September 1, speaking of an engagement between the English forces and German cavalry in the neighborhood of Compiègne, some fifty miles from Paris, and roughly the same distance from Peronne, was only explained three days later when we heard that La Fère was occupied by the Germans on August 29 and Amiens on the following day. A belated

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dispatch last week also told us of German troops being reported near Beauvais, and a French official report mentioned that there had been no contact in the neighborhood of Compiègne and Senlis (some thirty miles from Paris) since September 2.

The Allies' line, then, a week ago we may assume to have been from Creil, on the Oise, to Senlis and Crépy-en-Valois, thence northeast to Soissons, southeast to Rheims, and across to Verdun. Rheims was given up apparently on Thursday or Friday of last week. The left wing of the Allies has fallen back upon the outer fortifications of Paris; the right wing continues to rest on the Meuse at Verdun, extending southwards to Nancy and Belfort, and the line, instead of forming a bow towards the north, has fallen back to a similar formation towards the south. The Allies' position, then, at the beginning of the great battle which started on Sunday or Monday, and which, as we write, is presumably still in progress, was south of the Marne, on the line Meaux, Sézanne, Vitry-le-François, Verdun, Nancy—a front of some 150 miles and a right flank of fifty. For the time, Paris is relieved from the prospect of an attempted assault by the German movement towards the southeast, which leaves the German forces opposing the Allies' line, from left to right, in five armies, those of Gen. von Kluck, Gen. von Bülow, the Grand Duke Albrecht, of Württemburg, the Crown Prince Wilhelm, and Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria. It is obvious, too, that the German plan does not contemplate an investment of Paris—a dangerous operation with the enemy's army in the field—until the Allies' forces have been decisively defeated.

The battle that is now in progress is bound, therefore, to be a momentous one. As we write, no possible forecast of its result can be made. Indications are that the German endeavor will be to cut the centre of the Allied line, driving the left back on Paris and isolating the right along the Meuse. This supposition is strengthened by the reports of successes on the left wing, where the Allies are said to have advanced a considerable distance and appear to be attempting a turning movement. If this is so, it would seem to indicate that forces have been withdrawn from the German right to reinforce the centre. If the Allies have brought up sufficient reserves to enable their centre at Vitry-le-François to hold firm, the turning movement on the left may develop considerable importance and imperil the German right flank. Cautious mention should also be made of the persistent reports of the landing of troops—Russians or East Indians, or both—in Belgium. Should there be truth in these reports, and should the new army assembling in Belgium be of any considerable strength, it is obvious that not only would the German lines of communication be seriously threatened, but that the army in France would be exposed to an attack in the rear. It is barely possible that this danger may account for the German movement towards the southeast as an attempt to regain direct touch with Germany on the eastern frontier and to form new lines of communication in that direction. It should be noted, also in this connection that there has been renewed German activity in Belgium. On Saturday Termonde was taken after sharp fighting. Ghent was surrendered on Tuesday by agreement, and there are reports of a projected attack upon Antwerp.

The situation in the eastern campaign has become considerably clearer during the past week. We spoke last week of the main Russian attack being directed on Berlin by way of Posen, and pointed out that the main Russian army was delayed in striking for its objective by the Austrian invasion in the Lublin district. It has now become apparent that not only has this army been delayed by Austrian successes around Lublin, but that the battle at Allenstein, to which we referred last week, was a serious reverse, and that Germany, with her miraculous faculty for apparently making two men grow where only one grew before, was able to put many more troops in the field in Eastern Prussia to repel the Russian invasion than was generally supposed. German accounts of the capture of 70,000 prisoners in this battle may safely be discounted as on a par with the official denial of the taking of Lemberg two days after its occupation was admitted in Vienna, but there is no doubt that two Russian army corps were seriously defeated at Allenstein, and that this defeat had to be remedied before the main Russian army could make further progress.

The Russian offensive may be considered as a whole as stretching from near Königsberg, in Prussia, on the north, through Poland, to Lemberg, in Austria, on the south, its right and left flanks advanced beyond its centre. The German victory at Allenstein has been counterbalanced by a Russian victory over the first Austrian army in Galicia and the capture of Lemberg, news of which was received on Thursday of last week. The battle resulting in the occupation of Lemberg was evidently an engagement of first-rate importance. It is unsafe to accept any estimate of the number of losses inflicted on the enemy, but all accounts agree that the Austrian army was decisively defeated, and the fact that large quantities of stores were taken at Lemberg may be of appreciable advantage to the Russians in hastening their advance. In Galicia also they have seized Halicz, presumably that they may command the passes of the Carpathians, and are threatening the fortress of Przemysl, fifty miles east of Lemberg, which is the last stronghold in Galicia, and the taking of which would open the way to Krakau, the base of the Austrian army in Poland.

The Russian success at Lemberg immediately put the Austrian army operating in Lublin in the gravest peril of a flank attack, which, according to reports received on Tuesday, has already been undertaken. According to these accounts Gen. Ruzsky, commanding the Russian forces in Galicia, immediately after his victory at Lemberg, moved north and attacked the flank of the Austrian second army under Gen. Auffenberg. At the time of writing that army is said to be on the defensive and a big battle is in progress. Caught between two fires, the Austrian situation would seem to be exceedingly precarious. Should the Russians gain another decisive victory in this battle, the principal obstacles to the immediate invasion of Prussia will have been removed, and it is probable that a simultaneous advance on Berlin, by way of Posen and of Breslau, will be undertaken.

Foreign Correspondence

THE FALL OF NAMUR—LORD KITCHENER'S MAIDEN SPEECH—THE PROSPECT OF A PROLONGED STRUGGLE—THE COST OF THE WAR.

By SIR HENRY LUCY.

WESTMINSTER, August 28.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the disappointment that spread gloom throughout London when news came of the fall of Namur, quickly followed by announcement that, after desperate fighting lasting through a day and a night, the Allied forces were compelled to withdraw from the favorable position taken and to retire on the line of defence originally planned. It was confidently anticipated that this famed fortress would make a stand against the invaders stouter even than that maintained by Liège. Three months was, upon high authority, specifically named as the period of its successful defence. With Namur fallen almost at the first blow, the rest followed as a matter of course. But, though the public of all classes was smitten by disappointment, the more keen because it followed close upon a period of exultation, there was no sign anywhere of departure from the stern resolution to see this business through to the finish. The British soldier cheerily marching to the front sings, "Are we downhearted?" and answers his own question with a prolonged shout of "No." London under the first shock, though painfully surprised, is in no measure downhearted, an attitude reflected throughout the land.

In Tuesday morning's papers there appeared a brief dispatch from the seat of war giving the names of three or four men, including a Scottish peer, who have been wounded. There was a common disposition to accept this as the whole of the story, a misleading impulse that made greater the shock which smote the town on Tuesday afternoon when official announcement was made on the authority of Sir John French that over two thousand men of the Expeditionary Force had been knocked over, some killed, the rest wounded or missing. This brought the meaning of war home to countless hearths. The absence of names added to the anguish of the situation. Every one who had a father, son, or brother at the front was stricken with apprehension that he might be among the doomed two thousand. There was, further, the prospect that even if the cherished one escaped with life and sound limb from this first battle, there was an indefinite succession of deadly risks in store.

Lingering hope that the war may be of brief duration, a hope cherished in the rosy atmosphere of last week, has been dispelled by Lord Kitchener's maiden speech in the House of Lords. While talking cheerfully of the condition of the Expeditionary Force, extolling its gallant stand at Mons, the War Secretary did not attempt to disguise his conviction that we are in for a long job. He talked quite coolly about a duration of three years, and made it clear that his plan for maintaining the strength of the army was based upon that contingency. For how long so ever the war lasts, he intends to maintain in even increasing strength the army at present in the field. In a concluding passage he hinted that if the voluntary system of enlistment is not equal to the emergency, "ex-

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ertions and sacrifices beyond any yet demanded will be required from the whole nation and Empire." That, of course, means conscription. While this memorable speech had an immediately chilling effect as pointing to indefinite prolongation of the war, it comforted the audience and the nation, breathlessly listening at the door of the House of Lords, with assurance that through the critical time coming it will always hear the full truth when Lord Kitchener speaks. He has no honeyed words, whether for soldier or civilian.

The war now opening on the Continent will be notable, among other things, as marking the final supersession of the war correspondent. It is true that a member of the staff of the *Times* had the good fortune to find himself within riding distance of Dinant when an engagement took place between detachments of the French and Germans, and made the most of it by dispatching to his paper a column of description. But that was an accident, and the order issued at the suggestion of Sir Edward Grey prohibiting English correspondents to attach themselves to any division of the Allied forces will make repetition impossible. As a matter of fact, the war correspondent's occupation, like Othello's, is gone. Time was, so recently as 1870, when correspondents representing the leading newspapers on both sides of the Atlantic were recognized by the headquarters staff of the several combatants. On the brink of the present war the most influential journalists, seeking to obtain permits for their representatives to accompany one or other of the armies, met with uncompromising refusal.

There is no doubt that, for military purposes, this attitude is justifiable. It is, nevertheless, a profound disappointment to the public and, in some degree, a lack of incentive to officers and men personally to distinguish themselves, knowing that within twenty-four hours England will be ringing with the story of their valor. "Billy" Russell, Archibald Forbes, McGaghan, and other brilliant war correspondents were born in due season. They would find themselves to-day hopelessly hampered in the performance of their accustomed work.

When, thirty-seven years ago, Disraeli asked for a vote of credit with the avowed intention of defending Turkey against incursion by Russia, he modestly fixed the amount at six millions sterling. One hundred millions to begin with was Mr. Asquith's demand, necessity being created by certain prospect of war with Germany, a request unhesitatingly, almost enthusiastically, conceded by the House of Commons. It is too early to talk of the cost of a war imposed upon this country by the unbridled ambition of the German Emperor. It may, however, be reckoned upon a scale proportionate with that of 1870. In 1899 the British Government responded to President Kruger's ultimatum by asking for a vote of credit for ten millions, a sum the House was assured was based on an estimate liberally designed to cover all contingencies. Labouchere elicited a scornful laugh when, in Committee of Ways and Means, he prophesied that the cost of the war would not be less than one hundred millions sterling. In the end it ran close up to two hundred and fifty millions.

The colossal sum already voted for the service of the present war does not mean an immediately consequent increase of taxation. It and subsequent drafts of approximate magnitude will be met by a loan. Hitherto, differing from the policy of its predecessors, the Government has in all cases involving increased war expenses, whether naval or military, paid its way out of the revenues of the year. Such Spartan probity would be impossible in dealing with the charges of this war. Nor would it be an arrangement fair to the taxpayer of to-day, who has through a succession of years patriotically borne the burden of keeping up the navy to the state of perfection that makes it capable of meeting a national crisis. We might have purchased temporary peace by accepting what Mr. Asquith in an historic phrase described as the "infamous proposal" of the German Emperor. The country has chosen the better way. It means to fight it out to a finish with the "Bully of Berlin," and so deliver the next generation from the tyranny of that spirit of militarism that has cost us so much during the past twenty years.

ITALY'S NEUTRALITY AND ITALIAN PUBLIC OPINION.

GENOA, August 17.

No policy, no ideal even, has held Italy so compact and united, not only in feeling but in purpose, as its declaration of neutrality. Government and people are absolutely one in this, and present an encouraging spectacle in the midst of an awful historic drama.

Whether the foresight of her statesmen is responsible for her present enviable position, or whether it can be traced to the solid common-sense of the Italian mind, matters little; what does count is the unanimity of the sentiment for peace, as it gives hopeful assurance of its continuance. To have resisted, even so long as it has, the promises and blandishments on the one hand, and the thinly veiled threats on the other, has been no easy matter, especially when we consider that at this trying moment Italy's alliances do not harmonize with her political interests or with the sympathies of her people.

What has helped her in keeping from the pitfalls that have been dug all about her by the belligerent states who court her support, has been a strict adherence to well-defined and incontrovertible principles of the duties and obligations of a neutral state, without fear or favor. In other words, while her more powerful neighbors are daily committing acts which are a denial of law, Italy stands like a rock on the obligations and observance of international juridic principles. Her enemies may call this an unvaliant and too technical a policy, but thinking men must read in Italy's neutrality the one reconstructive hope of European civilization. And if, after the smoke of battle clears away, the price of her "inaction" shall be, as some of her friends threaten, that she shall come out as heretofore "with clean but empty hands," yet will her prestige compensate enormously the failure of her material aggrandizement.

Whatever the secret treaty of alliance with Austria and Germany may contain, it is admitted that it calls for joint action by the contracting Powers only in case of aggression; and the facts regarding the beginning of hostilities by Austria-Hungary against Servia, and by Germany against Russia and France, cannot be distorted by international casuists into that *casus fœderis* which would compel Italy, under the treaty, to join in the struggle. But irrespective of this, the essential object of the Triple Alliance was the maintenance of the *status quo* in the Balkans, and Austria's action against Servia was a nullification of this purpose of the treaty.

There is, however, a political consideration of immense importance, affecting Italy's treaty obligations towards her ally. The Viennese Government cannot be ignorant of the obvious fact that the one supreme desire of the Italian people is to wipe out the bitter remembrance of Lissa and to regain the Adriatic littoral of the Venetian Republic. Nothing would be more popular than a war against Austria, and never perhaps would the time be so propitious as now, when her ancient enemy is so sorely pressed.

And yet Italy stands neutral! This is the magnificent and inspiring fact—a fact made possible not by any imposition or pressure of the Italian Government, not by very doubtful treaty guarantees, but by the deliberate, soberly reasoned purpose of the people—of the whole people—of United Italy.

In the dingiest *osterie,* no less than in the "literary" cafés, not a word is spoken that might give offence, however free is the expression of sympathy and admiration for the Triple Entente. The newspapers, though uncensored, are models of restraint and good judgment, and though the country's heart throbs with one great, unspoken hope, it does not smother the country's mind in the labor of directing the ship of state.

It may well happen that Italy may be compelled to change her attitude, and Italy does well to prepare for any fate. But even in this her procedure has been admirable. She has husbanded her resources, taken stock of her assets, and distributed as much as possible the inevitable business and physical hardships of preparing for war. Her mobilization is done very gradually, she is distributing her returning immigrants who have fled from the war states by the thousands, where there is a shortage of men from the calling out of the reserves, and is taking ample measures to safeguard her finances.

To-day, except for the presence of frightened Americans and weary refugee-immigrants, Italy looks the same happy, fascinating land that we have always found her. But it seems to me that over its fair face there shines a seriousness and a purposefulness that betoken national maturity and national self-reliance. If she shall have to descend into the lists, hers will be the one army of all the military hosts of the great Powers which is fresh and unweary; hers will be the exchequer that has been the least drained and the most added to during the present conflict, and hers will have been the fortune and distinction of being the last to submit to the arbitrament of the sword the sordid desires and the racial hatreds of "civilized" Europe.

GINO C. SPERANZA.

MEMORIES LOST IN THE STORM—JEAN JAURES AND JULES LEMAITRE.

LAUSANNE, August 8.

Something should be said of Jean Jaurès before his memory is lost in the storm that has swept over our civilization. His dreams were of a new civilization, and he lived to wake from them long enough to see the German comrades of his *Internationale* face about and march after their War Lord. Among his last day's utterances in his daily organ, *L'Humanité,* there is a confession of Man's irremediable need to save his family and country even through armed Nationalism. Perhaps it was the nation's growing distress as well as uncomprehending political animosity that drove mad the poor simpleton who assassinated him. All his disciples, even

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the Syndicalists who verge on anarchy, have taken up the cry of every nation of men struggling for their common life:

> Strike for your altars and your fires!
> Strike for the green graves of your sires!

The words seem commonplace—and are universal. Marcel Sembat and the other leaders have since wheeled Socialists into line with all Frenchmen; and they are but following the lead of Jaurès in his last days. In the paling and ineffectual fires of Pacifism, its *enfant terrible*—Gustave Hervé, who preached in peace the General Strike as an *ultima ratio* against war—has gone to the front to fight as a common soldier, calling back a fit epitaph till the time comes when the dead leader can be better remembered: "They have assassinated Jaurès—let not us assassinate our country!" Jaurès was a curious product, whole and entire, of that civilization which he was willing to change—and which seems to be changing actually under the clank of arms far more quickly than his mind, all for peace, could have foreseen. The future Gibbon will tell whether it was the decline and fall of European civilization as it has been and whether this shall have been replaced by another painful birth of Humanity. *Tantæ molis erat Germanam condere gentem!* Jaurès came forth from the old rhetoric and philosophy a reasoner, for himself and others, exactly fulfilling the definition given by John Stuart Mill: "A man is often called a great logician, or a man of powerful logic, not for the accuracy of his deductions, but for the extent of his command over premises; because the general propositions required for explaining a difficulty or refuting a sophism, copiously and promptly occur to him; as in the case of Chillingworth, or Samuel Johnson." Other physical and mental, and perhaps moral, parallels might be found in Jaurès and Dr. Johnson—and not too fanciful. There was the bulk of the men, though Jaurès had legs enough shorter to be characteristic. There was the thunderous voice, which Jaurès used with an art ranging from the organ-pipe tones of a cathedral canon to the hurrying strains of La Carmagnole sung from the top of a wineshop table. Then there was the strong common-sense, which enabled Jaurès to weave intelligible arguments while his brother prophets were wrapping up their Socialist counsel in unskilful words.

Jaurès began with the old metaphysics just as Johnson began—and continued—with the old High Church theology. His thesis for the doctor's degree—for he became a university professor of philosophy—was a stout volume on the "reality of the external world" or the existence of matter. In a memorable page of Boswell, Dr. Johnson solved the same question against Berkeley by kicking at a stone—*solvitur ambulando*. Except for some curious and complete biographer, it may be doubted if the philosophy or even the speeches of Jaurès—and he passed his later life speechifying and writing leading articles—will win more than vague mention in books on a man that has helped to make history. It was the sword of his word that turned the Government scale in the Dreyfus affair and made possible the Radical-Socialist *bloc*—and last spring's triumph of Socialism which a physical sword is now likely to undo. The patriarch of French Socialists, Jules Guesde, had been of another opinion: "Dreyfus is a *bourgeois*—let the *bourgeois* settle their own quarrels!"

There is one several-volumed, uncompleted book of Jean Jaurès—for it is really his in inception and plan, and largely in execution, though a coöperative product—which is insufficiently known now, but may last. It is the Socialist history of the French Revolution. Just as Dr. Johnson's wide culture gave him historical *lumina* that still enlighten, so Jaurès's "extent of command over premisses" gave him an insight which is often wanting utterly to narrower documentarians.

Poor Jules Lemaître is another Frenchman who has died just at the monent when his passionate desire to know what is coming to the world—and to France—must have been acutest. Perhaps it is better for him; the world's Becoming may prove to be something that would have been his despair. When there is again breathing space to think, his memory may be taken up and receive that obituary glory which the iniquity of the times now denies him. His career was significant of the France that is passing—and in France alone was it possible. He was the son of the school-teacher of a peasant village near Orléans; and the Church gave him the charity of a strong classical formation in one of her *petits séminaires*, where young boys study until they are old enough to decide whether they will go on to the *grand séminaire* and become priests.

Jules Lemaître chose to go up to the Government Ecole Normale, to which his brilliant attainments gained him easy admission. The famous school was still at the height of its literary and scientific renown, though Jules Lemaître took little of the scientific spirit of the day from it, save for a keenly critical intelligence and a smiling, unpronouncing view of life in accord with the reigning skepticism of Renan. Every one then was for Taine or Renan; and Lemaître has at least lived to see both those luminaries sink beneath the waves of intellectual change. His own intelligence survived with all its qualities, although he said of the young men immediately following him—Maeterlinck and the others—that they left him feeling "devoid of all mental security." They, too, have passed in France; and Jules Lemaitre, their elder, leaped over into essential sympathy with the still newer generation. His critics said it was a phenomenon of heredity and a reversion to his early clerical education. It was one consequence of the Dreyfus affair in its manifold activity, wherein Dreyfus was the least part. Jules Lemaître himself said it was the revival in him to intense life of the Frenchman he had always been. Beforehand, he had done the work for which he will be remembered—that fine, clear, subtle, erudite, wonderfully expressed criticism of the "Contemporains" which comes nearest to the "Causeries" of Sainte-Beuve—and with this should be joined his "Impressions de théâtre."

After the change came a political avatar with years perhaps not wholly wasted; and then the incomplete resignation of later years, with the first manner not entirely regained, and yet sharpened by the second in profitable, if partial, views of Fénelon and Racine, Rousseau and Châteaubriand—each of whom wrote for Revolution or Counter-Revolution, as he had himself written for both. Towards the end, as in so many French writers of this evil day, there was a growing sense in his writing of the needs which the old religion supplied—"the old mother, the Church, crooning her children to rest," of a famous Parliamentary apostrophe of Jean Jaurès, when he finally cut loose from Jules Lemaître's old France.

S. D.

Poetry

WAR.

Fools, fools, fools,
Your blood is hot to-day.
It cools
When you are clay.
It joins the very clod
Wherein your foe shall be,—
Wherein you look at God,
Wherein at last you see
The living God,
The loving God,
Which was your enemy.

WITTER BYNNER.

Books and Men

THE CONSTANT TOPIC.

The newspaper cartoonists suffer not so much from lack of technical skill (if an untrained eye may judge) as from lack of ideas. The man or woman who tries to say something, whether with pencil, brush, or pen, at certain regular intervals, must not be criticised too severely. He or she deserves the consideration which was solicited for the pianist in the Western mining camp—"Do not shoot at him; he is doing the best he can." The necessity of creating something once a year hinders an artist; a monthly production bothers him; a continual state of absent-mindedness besets the man who must be ready once a week; what it means to answer the daily call for a picture, an editorial article, or a column of paragraphs, let those who have suffered declare.

Stevenson declined ten thousand dollars for weekly articles for a year, at a time when the sum meant almost fabulous wealth to him. Owen Seaman prays a lady:

So, if you would grant a favor,
In your orisons recall
One whose smile could scarce be graver
If his mouth were full of gall;
Let your lips (that shame the ruby)
Pray for mine all wan and bleak
With the strain of trying to be
Funny every week.

'Tis a task that haunts me waking,
Like a vampire on the chest,
Spoils my peace, prevents my taking
Joyance in another's jest;
Makes me move abroad distracted,
Trailing speculative feet;
Makes me wear at home a rack'd head
In a dripping sheet.

The title of this department is "Books and Men," and for five weeks it has been my ambition to confine these articles to books, and to say little or nothing about the great and terrible events which engage the men of Europe and Asia. So far, I believe that I have scored a complete failure. The war has crept into everything I have written. It is significant of these world-shaking days that even men who are so far removed from action as to spend their lives amongst books

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cannot talk for five minutes or write for ten without finding themselves in the thick of the one absorbing topic.

There is no moment of the day, no situation in which we may find ourselves, that does not lead us straight to it. An hour after sunrise this morning I was walking through a country lane, a mile from the nearest house. The famous passage from Carlyle's "French Revolution" kept running in my head—the apostrophe to the evening sun of July, shining peacefully upon the fields of France, upon cottagers before the doors of their homes, upon tight-jacketed hussars dancing with the ladies of Versailles, "and also upon this hell-roaring porch of the Hôtel de Ville!"

The old, old contrast came to me, as it comes to thousands of others every day now. The sun rising through the mists, the September meadows, brown and green, with a few, fading black-eyed susans here and there, a flight of crows overhead, and nearer, three or four blue-birds—their autumn gatherings commenced—all this vanished away to give place to the swarming fields of Picardy, to men standing and falling, as they were doing at that instant, amidst the horrible din of bursting shells, and to the heaps of what three minutes before had been living soldiers.

By breakfast time the papers have come, and although you try to avoid the subject, every one has at least seen the headlines, has learned what new countries are being dragged into the conflict, what charges and counter-charges of inhumanity are made and denied. On the train that carries you to the city, or the street-car to your office, men are absorbed in their papers as never before. You are not allowed to forget the war for an hour. People talk of it in offices, everywhere. Extras are roared down the streets. Ten thousand, twenty thousand, seventy thousand men have been killed at some place you never heard of before. The great machine is grinding on. The devil of militarism has long been caged—like Mr. Hyde's, it has come out roaring. At the luncheon hour there are more papers—it is nearly evening over there now, and only an hour or two of daylight left. Many men, however, can be killed in an hour. And the coming of night does not stop the killing by any means. We have new inventions; science has taken wonderful strides.

At the restaurants men argue, grow red, almost shake their fists in others' faces. The people you pass on the street are talking about it; you catch their stray words—"Paris," "the Russians," "Turkey." From people sitting on park benches the same words come, and the talk of the war drifts to you across the lawns of suburban houses. The great, tragic game of humanity is being played by more players and on a wider field than ever before—is it any wonder the spectators talk about it?

More papers, when the crowds turn to come home from their work. Cities have fallen, armies been captured, forts battered, ships sunk. We are fed full with horrors, our minds dulled and understandings atrophied—we read of the death of a thousand men without half the emotion we should feel if a man in the next seat should pinch his finger in the window.

In a novel published a few months ago, one of the characters is represented as taking part in a great European war. He is crouching in a trench, somewhere on the plains of Belgium, listening to the German guns battering Namur. He reflects that, like himself, on that day, a million men, from Holland to the Alps, are crawling and crouching and seeking to shoot each other. The ghastly idiocy of the whole thing appalls him. (You will find it in "The World Set Free," by H. G. Wells.)

"The thing is idiotic to the pitch of impossibility," he says. "It is a dream. Presently I shall wake up."

Six weeks ago we called the book fiction.

All this week the harvest moon has shone, sometimes in a clear sky, sometimes through a mist, but always attended by that great planet which sails across the southeast every night. Drifting mists hang over the meadows, upon which the moon's rays fall. You cannot look on it without a sense of the horror of contrast. You are lucky if you do not see in your mind's eye the sleeping lines of men whose night, over there, is ended. It is time for them to rise up and kill each other. You are lucky if you do not think of that larger and more pitiful host who lie down in trouble, and awake to anxiety, of those whose sleep is prevented by thought of the death which rains down out of the sky.

EDMUND LESTER PEARSON.

Correspondence

THE UNITED STATES AS BATTLEFIELD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: With all the attention that international congresses have given to defining the position of neutral states during time of war, one inevitable danger has been overlooked. That is the danger which the neutral states must suffer as the diplomatic battlefield of the warring Powers.

A neutral state, to remain neutral, must adopt sooner or later a censorship of the press. This censorship may be voluntary, as that in the United States at present, or legal, as in Switzerland. It is, nevertheless, a censorship. Moreover, the inhabitants of a neutral state must be excessively guarded in every utterance concerning the international situation. Why, then, when the neutrals themselves must exercise such care, should they be subjected to the incendiary efforts of foreign diplomats?

As neutrals, we in the United States have the power to keep out the armed forces of belligerent countries. Why should we not have the power to silence the diplomatic forces of those same countries? We certainly cannot keep out these official representatives of friendly Powers; but why cannot we confine them to their official functions, instead of allowing them to do what we ourselves are forbidden to do? Some of them (fortunately not all) take almost daily occasion to instruct us in what our attitude should be, with whom we should cast our sympathies, why we should cut short our admiration for others, in brief, why we should think and act precisely as they would have us think and act.

I do not say that these foreign representatives may not be instructing us rightly. That has nothing to do with the fact that as neutrals we have as much moral right to protect ourselves from such partisan influences as we have to protect ourselves from the passage of belligerent troops. The lesson we are learning is not one of to-day and merely for this war; it is a lesson for all time and for all international complications.

As we all know, in any war between allied forces, the main object of diplomacy is to separate the allies by creating real or imaginary jealousies. To do this, diplomacy must have that double-edged tool, the power of suggestion. Now, no diplomat would be so tactless as to make suggestions himself to his diplomatic opponents. But in as conglomerate a country as the United States, he finds no end of innocent but effective mouthpieces. The partisans of a strident democracy, in particular, are only too ready, upon skilful provocation, to make invidious comparisons between autocrats and democrats, and to proclaim the impossibility of reconciling the democratic and autocratic principles.

If we but remember that Germany and Austria have democratic Italy as an ally, and that democratic France and England are hand in hand with Russia, we can see what an admirable tool of suggestion our blatant democrats might become. We cannot help our prejudices and our beliefs; but it seems that in all justice we should be able to protect those prejudices from being exploited by belligerent countries.

This, then, is a case for the first "peace" conference held after the present slaughter is over and people recollect once more that they are in an "enlightened age." In the meantime, what are we to do? Not only is our present neutrality greatly endangered by our powerlessness against the diplomatic feuds at Washington, but our sense of justice, as well, which would keep us from adding the slightest irritation to the wounds of Europe, is outraged. Whatever mistakes we may make as a nation young in diplomatic intrigue, we have but one genuine desire, and that is to see the war terminated at once. But if these foreign diplomats have their way with us, we shall only be instrumental in starting a series of misunderstandings, jealousies, new alliances, and counter alliances which will inevitably draw out the conflict to a war of years. How can we prevent this? A future conference may rectify this anomaly of the neutral state; but now we must act for ourselves.

We can, of course, be as deaf as those who won't hear. But we are quite human enough to be curious about all that is said, and once we hear, our prejudices are apt to run away with us. Either, then, the press must undergo a further voluntary censorship and refuse to print statements of foreign diplomats, or Washington must politely request these gentlemen to refrain from quarrelling while they are our guests. What should we think of two gentlemen who would indulge in reprisals in their hostess's drawing-room? Should we continue to call them gentlemen? I think not.

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Most certainly I should think the hostess justified in politely reminding the men that the place for the quarrel was elsewhere.

President Wilson has shown remarkable tact and dignity so far; is it straining a point to ask that for the safety of the country and to satisfy our sense of justice and etiquette, he should make this further effort? RICHARD DANA SKINNER.

Cambridge, Mass., September 1.

PERPLEXITY OVER THE WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A constant reader of the *Nation*, I am in great perplexity over three points brought up in your late issues as to the horrible war now going on in Europe, and I hope that I may be helped out in some way through the *Nation*:

(1.) How can I reconcile your strong arguments for England's burning zeal to preserve the peace of Europe with the report from your London correspondent that England had secretly made ready for war weeks before the clash came? (*Nation*, August 27, p. 245).

(2.) How can the Kaiser be described as hungering for blood when his reign of twenty-six years, down to the present conflict, has been one of unbroken peace?

(3.) When Germany's record for peace is so superior to that of her four great adversaries, why is she singled out as a horrid example of a nation mad with militarism? During the forty-odd years from the Franco-German encounter to the present strife, Japan waged two considerable foreign wars, Russia two, France had at least two instances of serious fighting, and England nearly half a dozen—while Germany had none of any importance. I leave out the movement in which all engaged against the Boxers in China. Perhaps on the last two points above, one of your correspondents, Mr. B. E. Schmitt, Western Reserve University, can throw some light.

It may be that the study of the past conduct of a person or a nation as one insight into the springs of action is all wrong, but if any one knows a better means of getting at the basal principles of character, I pray that he will tell me.

At any rate, I trust that some one within your circle of influence can relieve my mental distress on the above matters.

C. MERIWETHER.

Washington, D. C., August 30.

[(1.) Preparation for war may be accounted for by the conviction that the party prepared against intends to fight; it is not incompatible with a sincere desire to avert war.

(2.) It is not necessary to accuse the Kaiser of "hungering for blood"; that he did not desire to avert this particular war is, in our judgment, incontrovertibly proved by the official record—by the British "White Paper" and the German Foreign Office memorandum alike; but his notion of his duty and his prerogative as the *Kriegsherr* of Germany, his view of what was demanded by her interests as a great Power, and his estimate of the military opportuneness of the present moment for a successful war, are sufficient to account for his course, without ascribing to him any love of bloodshed for its own sake.

(3.) It is impossible to judge of the dominance of militarism in a country by a simple count of the number of wars it has had in a given time. That the military caste, and militarist ideas, have had a tremendous sway over the life, the aspirations, and the international attitude of Germany, is a fact attested in a thousand ways. In fifty-three years, beginning with 1846, the United States had three wars, while Germany, as our correspondent points out, had none in forty-three years, beginning with 1871; but nobody in his senses would think of classing the United States as a country under the sway of militarism, while Germany is universally so classed.—ED. THE NATION.]

LOUVAIN ABOUT 1600.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Just now, when the horrified attention of the world has been turned on Louvain, it may be of interest to point out a descriptive work in which a seventeenth-century scholar and lover of the beautiful celebrated the fair city. The new vandalism has swept away, apparently, almost everything that remained from his time.

In 1605, while living in Louvain as historiographer and professor, Justus Lipsius published this little treatise in three books. It was entitled "Lovanium: id est, Oppidi et Academiæ ejus Descriptio." The loyalty he felt for the town was due partly to the fact that some of his ancestors had been residents of it, but still more to his own life there as student and teacher. Viewing Louvain on a summer's day from a hill near by, he determined to commemorate it in prose, "nam amo locum." The glory of it, to his mind, was fading, since he remembered the time, thirty-seven years before, when seven or eight thousand students were gathered there, Batavi, Frisii, Menapii, Galli, Britanni, Hispani, Itali, he particularized, and even "ulteriores Germani"—alas! After devoting two books to the political and social history of the city, and to an account of its important buildings and conventual establishments, he proceeded to a description of the university, the soul of Louvain. "Hæc mea castra sunt," he cried, "hic ager quem colo."

The verses he appended to one chapter of his tribute deserve quotation, if only to show that the imperial German opinion as to Louvain's unimportance has not always been held. Can it be that the twentieth century is less civilized than the seventeenth? Or is it only that Germany has suffered a relapse into barbarism?

Salvete Athenæ nostræ, Athenæ Belgicæ,
O fida sedes artium, et fructu bona,
Lateque spargens lumen et nomen tuum!
Te Gallus, et Germanus, et te Sarmata
Invisit, et Britannus, et te duplicis
Hesperiæ alumnus, quam frequens frequentia
Stipavit olim, et advenarum copia!
Quæ minuit aliquid civicus, fateor, furor
Et Mars cruentus: sed fuere, quis neget?
Et fructus etiam apparet, o quot millia
(Ita dico) protulistis insignes viros,
Auxilia vel consilia publicæ rei?
Quot Famæ in æde consecrastis nomina,
Perennibus victura scriptionibus?
Et porro proferetis, et sacrabitis,
Si donat aliquam mitior pacem Deus.
Donabit autem, vota vos modo et preces
Concipite, et in partem advocate Virginem,
Patrona quæ vestra audit, et Dei parens.

GORDON HALL GEROULD.

Roxbury, N. Y., September 4.

THE PROFESSOR'S COMPENSATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is a popular impression that it is the college professor's personal advantage that is sought in the various returns made to him for his services, that he is the enviable recipient of special favors. As a matter of fact, whatever the college does for the professor it does first of all for its own advantage—that is, for the advantage of its students. This will become evident upon a consideration of the various elements of the professor's compensation. These are: salary, pension, fewness of lecture hours, holidays, vacations, and sabbatical years; not to speak of social standing, which, after all, depends largely upon himself. All these features together make up an amount of attraction that in the long run determines the grade of ability represented in the faculty of any given college, and, as regards the whole country, the grade of ability that can be drawn from the other professions or from business into the highest walks of teaching.

The feature that is usually first thought of is the salary. On this in most cases depends the professor's physical existence. It should obviously be large enough to house, clothe, and feed him and his family, to provide him with books and periodicals, to educate his children, and to suffice for some of the amenities of life; otherwise he will be forced to do outside work to eke out his living, and this will mean a drain on the strength that ought to be given to his classes.

It is a striking commentary on the importance of pensions that the best-known work of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching is its pension system, which finds its application only after the teaching has been done. The professor's pension advances teaching principally by making it possible for the college to get men at salaries far less than they would come for if they had to lay by for old age out of their monthly pay. Pensions are an enormous educational economy, for most professors never receive the benefit of the system, either they or their wives. If every man had to provide for himself an income of two thousand dollars at the age of sixty-five, he would have to put into the savings bank, at the current rate of 4 per cent., $678.87 a year from the age of thirty onwards; and to make this possible, that amount would have to be added to every salary. It is therefore the college that, in actual dollars and cents as well as in the greater efficiency of the professor, when his mind is freed from financial anxiety for the future, is the chief beneficiary of the pension system.

The average American professor teaches from fifteen to eighteen hours a week, say, three hours a day for six days in the week. This seems a short time compared with even the business man's hours, but as a matter of fact, this estimate takes no account of the time spent in preparation or in that frightful waster of academic energy, committee work. But compare the intelligence displayed by American college trustees in utilizing the professor's efficiency, with that shown by his students in utilizing the efficiency of a champion baseball pitcher. One game a week is all that they ask or even allow him to play—the time of a single lecture hour; and even this brief period is broken up into nine parts. They know that more in quantity means less in quality, and they thoroughly appreciate the difference between the two. So far as the pro-

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fessor's bodily health is concerned, eighteen hours of teaching a week may not be excessive; it is the college that suffers. Instead of inspiration and intellectual quickening it has a right to expect from such a demand no more than drill and routine.

American professors have virtually no holidays; the periods that go under this name are merely opportunities for reading examination papers and catching up with back work. They do, however, have a summer vacation of approximately three months. This is clearly not an indulgence, but a necessity. It is a time for recovering from the strain of the year past and for storing up a stock of energy for the year to come. On this account it is not sufficient for any important intellectual work; or, if it is put to that use, the case becomes one of burning the candle at both ends. Similarly dangerous is the practice of allowing college professors to teach in summer schools. Their college cannot afford to let them do this, though it can hardly prevent such pot-boiling except by making it unnecessary.

For about a generation some of our colleges have had the commendable practice of granting their professors a year's leave of absence every seventh year. As the leave is with only half-pay, President Eliot some years ago lamented the fact that only professors with some independent means could take advantage of the sabbatical privilege. The advantage to the college of the professor's year of rest and change of scene is so great that the college cannot afford to allow him to miss it. The intermediate step has already been taken in several colleges of allowing a sabbatical half-year on full pay. This is a distinct gain; but the next and final step can be only a question of time; for the colleges most alive to their own interest will take it, and the others will have to follow.

One more question remains to be considered: Would not a sudden increase of salaries in a backward college to bring them up to the normal involve overpaying some of the present incumbents? This objection is most often put in the form of a direct statement, and it may frankly be admitted that in some cases overpayment might be involved; but to no such extent as the previous underpayment. If some professors seem to be below par in efficiency, it is only fair to ask what efforts have been made to develop their highest efficiency. Possibly they fall short only because they are forced to divide their energies for the sake of the money that is withheld from them. If, by establishing a salary that all ought to deserve, the college seems to overpay some, it is well to remember that, as Huxley said, all teachers are underpaid, and to ask whether those who seem overpaid are really so or only so by comparison. Salaries can, of course, be increased for some and kept at the present rate for others. Invidious as this practice is, and hard as it is to apply with justice, it is not unheard-of in American colleges; but to hold back increase of salaries from the great majority because to make it universal would be to overpay some, is, for the institution that practices it, slow but sure suicide. There is a movement now on foot in many of our colleges to raise the grade of salaries and to make other improvements in the status of the professor. These efforts should be supported not in the interest of charity or justice, but as undertakings absolutely necessary to the efficiency of the colleges themselves.

H. L. Koopman.

Providence, R. I., August 20.

Literature

LECTURES ON LEGISLATION.

The Mechanics of Law Making. By Courtenay Ilbert, G.C.B. New York: Columbia University Press.

If every member of the various legislative bodies in this country were compelled to master this modest treatise, the condition of our statute law would be much improved. Undoubtedly, many of the details of law-making in England, which Sir Courtenay lucidly describes, could not be observed here. Our Legislatures do not possess the unlimited powers of the British Parliament, and our people would not tolerate the restraints which English practice imposes upon "private bills" and "private members' bills." We are told (pp. 134-140) that a private bill deals mainly with the grant and regulation of franchises; that it is initiated by petition, and, being regarded as a privilege, for which a price should be paid to the State, pretty heavy fees are required at the several stages of its passage. A private members' bill is entirely different from a private bill. It may be a "public bill"; that is, one that alters the general law. But, as it is proposed by a private member and not by the Government, it stands small chance of enactment, unless the sunshine of Government favor smiles upon it. As a result, very few private members' bills succeed in getting through Parliament (pp. 84, 85).

Even though our legislators would not tolerate such restrictions, they might learn many valuable lessons from Sir Courtenay's pages. First of all, each legislative body can insist upon having official draughtsmen, to whom every bill shall be submitted, not only for corrections of language, but for such substantial changes as are necessary to enable the bill to accomplish the purpose intended, and no other. The gains to English statute law from the establishment of a parliamentary counsel's office, as set forth by our author, have been great; and he speaks with authority upon this topic, for he was at the head of that office for many years, and is now clerk of the House of Commons. He is of the opinion that an office such as that of parliamentary counsel is not suitable to the conditions of legislation in the United States, but he offers a number of wise suggestions for American legislators, who may wish to establish official agencies of a similar character. Another valuable lesson is contained in the sixth lecture, relating to "the art and craft of preparing and framing statutory enactments." Every legislator and every student of legislative draughtsmanship should read and re-read this lecture with care.

Probably no part of the book deserves more serious study, and certainly none is more interesting, than the lecture on codification. It is thoroughly intelligible, and the layman as well as the lawyer will rise from its perusal with the feeling that he has gained knowledge as well as entertainment from this masterly discussion of a well-worn theme. Sir Courtenay declares that "in England, codification on the more extensive scale has made no way, is making no way, and has practically no effective body of professional or public opinion to move it on; while in countries like France and Germany it is not only a success, but a popular success." He believes that this radical difference is due to the fact that in France and Germany a pressing need was felt for the unification of the substance of the law, throughout the various portions of each of these countries; while in England the law has been uniform for centuries. His argument on this point is illuminating. He insists that Benthamitic codification is not possible in England. All that can be hoped for is the codification of special topics, after the fashion of the Partnership act and the Sale of Goods act. These statutes content themselves with the statement of general principles, and do not attempt to supply rules applicable by an ordinary intellect to every possible case.

Although these lectures were prepared primarily for the law students of Columbia University, they were listened to by many laymen, and the book ought to have a wide circulation among those outside the legal profession. It affords an excellent example of what university schools of law are now attempting in the way of properly popularizing legal ideas and ideals.

CURRENT FICTION.

Love's Legend. By H. Fielding-Hall. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

We have here Fielding-Hall's second Sentimental Journey. The first, "One Immortality," we remember leaving at Venice before it was well started. It was an unconscionable time getting off, and when finally the last whistle blew, somehow we missed the boat, and the Sentimentalists sailed without us. Since then we have followed the author in his interrupted philosophical excursion till, in "The World-Soul," he solved the whole moral and religious problem to his own satisfaction. We were only sorry that he seemed to have said the final word—it had all been said so well. However, we might have reflected that philosophy and religion are not everything, and we were not unduly surprised when, early in the present year, he breezily settled the problem of Indian unrest in "The Passing of Empire." In the second Sentimental Journey he figures as Mr. Gallio, sailing down his own familiar Irawady with his newly wedded Lesbia. The incidents of the journey, amusing in themselves, are but a setting for the statement and solution of the difficulties that beset the newly married. They are resolved into two awkward facts—one, the essential and fundamental difference between man and woman, unbridged betimes, and later often unbridgeable; the second, and perhaps the corollary of the first, woman's jealousy of man's past. Now the Gallio of history was a scholar and a gentleman, and incidentally the originator

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of Masterly Inactivity as a fixed policy. The modern Gallio pursues his ancestral method, mitigated by fairy stories—the only stories that are really true—while the wisdom of the East, making its last stand in Burma, is administered in moderate doses to open eyes recalcitrant to the truth.

The initial difficulty crops up at the outset:

A man married, expecting to find certain things in his wife. It seemed to him part of the contract that he should find them. Apparently he didn't. They weren't there. . . . Suppose you engaged a girl for a dance, and, when you went to claim her, found that she considered that a mutual writing of names on programmes was the main thing, and that for the rest you went out for a walk on opposite sides of the street.

And Gallio teaches his Lesbia to "play the game," using the story of the Princess with the Bandaged Eyes for his purpose. So far, so good; but the very next day we have forebodings of evil:

For some reason that I do not know, I very much dislike to hear him talk of his past life. I think, perhaps, that I am jealous of that life, because he lived before—before yesterday.

Quite early in the voyage, Lesbia, sitting by her sleeping husband, solves the riddle of Beauty and the Beast. But that is only one step. For the rest, she learns many things—and it is to be hoped that Gallio does, too—especially to see life as it is, not as it ought to be.

Broken Music. By Phyllis Bottome. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

The Torch Bearer. By Reina Melcher Marquis. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We suppose the continued interest of current novelists in heroes and heroines of genius must be justified by some sort of steady demand; but we suspect that demand comes from a limited and largely feminine audience. The temperamental hero is by now almost as conventional a figure as the muscular hero, and rather more tiresome. The disease of genius is rare; why be continually manufacturing "cases," and gloating over them?

The Jean d'Ucelles of "Broken Music" is, his alleged gift apart, a feeble and contemptible youth, and, as his genius is merely asserted, there seems to be no good reason for tolerating the rest of him. A poor but talented young Baron, he comes to Paris to seek his fortune. After a momentary impulse towards asceticism, he becomes the kept lover of that staple character in current fiction, the greatest actress on the French stage. Tiring of her merely well-preserved charms, he assumes a more equal relation with a young girl (with a marvellous voice) whom he deserts temporarily for the sake of a married siren, and permanently for the sake of his "career." "Something has made a new man of me," are his parting words, "and I have an idea that this new man will make a little music. Mon Dieu! broken music, perhaps, but one cannot have everything complete! At the bottom of all beauty I find that there is grief." But feebleness and selfishness and nastiness—are these also at the bottom of beauty and of the genius which creates it?

Nothing of this too familiar moral is implied in "The Torch Bearer." The woman who is its subject does not prove her genius by becoming anybody's mistress; but we gather that she almost profanes it by becoming a plain man's wife. The plain man does not perceive that she is essentially an artist, with a special duty to perform. He has the old-fashioned notion that a normal woman may fulfil herself as a wife and a mother. He does not suspect that his wife is abnormal, a creature with (again we must take the author's word for the fact) a crying need for self-expression in the form of literature. He does not perceive that, being simply an honest, hard-working citizen, he is the inferior of a person with a passion for arranging words. This she resents, but motherhood and a crisis connected with it lead her to sacrifice her gift on the altar of domestic virtue. When, after many years, she feels herself free to write, she finds that the power has left her. This seems to the author of the story a tragic thing. The husband, who has come to understand what his wife has given up, is full of tremulous self-reproach and yearning sympathy. For many pages we are in an atmosphere of mourning for a priceless treasure which has been lost. Our only comfort lies in the discovery that the son has inherited the mother's gift. "It would have its fruition in Eric—and perhaps in Eric's sons and his sons' sons. She was granted a vision of a torch passed on from one trustworthy hand to another throughout the years, and beholding that vision, she was aware that nothing she had suffered mattered at all." The truth is, unless the reader is of the class which is moved to a thrill and an obeisance by the mere words Art and Artist, he is not likely to feel that the inspired Shella's sufferings did matter very much, Eric or no Eric. The world as a whole is too busy to enjoy coddling the mere symptoms of genius.

Ten Minute Stories. By Algernon Blackwood. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

This volume shows a ripening of the manner which began with "The Empty House," and an advance in conciseness of expression and power to focus narrative effects. A psychological story which is brief is a novelty, and these are brief and full. Again, whereas the author once used the supernatural and the psychically abnormal for the definite production of eeriness, he has now learned to make his goal the shadowing-forth of personality and states of mind. The tale of horror has become the tale of fancy and of character. A comparison of "The Wendig" in "The Lost Valley" with "The Impulse" in the new collection is not unfair; the former the narrative of some fee-faw-fum Canadian *were-wulf*, the latter the simple account of a London gentleman on £1,000 a year, cold, selfish, introduced as refusing a small loan to a pinched friend; who receives an announcement that his income is halved, and passes through a most agonizing dream-realization of what it meant to live always as the pinched do. Or we may take "The Strange Disappearance of a Baronet," whose sudden realization of his social uselessness becomes a monomania, in which he believes himself physically dwindling, in danger of crushing by the footman, lost in his bed. The author moves always in the pure realms of mind, tracking its abnormal reactions like a detective. In part he assumes an unreal world; in part its unreality is traceable to an ignoring of the heart and the physical emotions, and in part to the inaccuracy of his psychology.

THE SPECIAL GENIUS OF THE JEWS.

The Jews and Modern Capitalism. By Werner Sombart. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5 net.

Professor Sombart thinks in terms of flesh and blood, even when he is most busily employing statistics. He exhibits the Jewish race not as a collective intellect, but as the embodiment of forces that appeal fully as much to the historical and romantic imagination as to the economic. In the present work we have a fusing of economics, history, rabbinical lore, biology, psychology, and we may even say poetry. It would be hard to recall a more interesting book in recent years, or a more effective.

Mr. Sombart discloses his method in his opening sentence. There are two possible means of discovering to what extent any group of people participated in a particular form of economic organization. One is the statistical; the other the genetic. Along these two lines he conducts his argument. We are not warranted in drawing the conclusion that he holds a brief for the Jews, but obviously he is one who cannot possess facts without generalizing from them, and it must be admitted that occasionally he comes near to giving point to the definition of genius as the ability to generalize from one induction. Yet, if we are unable to agree with him every time on first thought, we are always impressed by him on second.

The signal fact of the sixteenth century was the shifting of the economic centre of Europe from the south to the north. Historians have ascribed this to the discovery of America and of the new route to the East Indies. Mr. Sombart is unable to see why the Italians, the Spaniards, the Portuguese should have suffered in the least from these discoveries. Equally flimsy is the argument that the Northwestern countries were strong consolidated states, while Germany and Italy were disunited. Is it a fact that Venice was a weaker state in the sixteenth century than the Seven Provinces in the seventeenth? And did not the empire of Philip II excel all the kingdoms of his time in power and renown? Moreover, why was it that, although Germany was in a state of political disruption, cities like Hamburg and Frankfort-on-the-Main reached a high degree

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of development in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, such as few French or English cities could rival?

The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries witnessed the expulsion of the Jews from Spain and Portugal, from Sicily, Naples, Genoa, and Venice, and from the old German commercial cities—Cologne, Augsburg, Strassburg, Erfurt, Nuremberg, Ulm, and Ratisbon. This dispersion was synchronous with the economic decline of these communities. It is interesting, in passing, to note that Leghorn, which was one of the few Italian cities enjoying high prosperity in the sixteenth century, opened its arms to the Jews. The increasing importance of Hamburg and Frankfort, coincidental with their liberal treatment of the Jews, may also be significant. It was in the sixteenth century that these wanderers invaded the Netherlands and England in considerable numbers. Mr. Sombart, of course, refuses to base arguments on mere coincidences. He turns to documentary evidence, and with no small success; along with much that appeals more to the imagination than to the reason, there is a residuum of fact that predisposes one to many of his conclusions. When, for example, the Senate of Venice, in 1550, decided to expel the Marannos and to forbid commercial intercourse with them, the Christian merchants of the city declared that it would mean their ruin, and that they might as well leave Venice with the exiles, seeing that they made their living by trading with the Jews. The Jews controlled the Spanish wool trade, the trade in Spanish silk and crimsons, and that in sugar, pepper, Indian spices, and pearls. Indeed, a great part of the entire export trade was carried on by them; they supplied the Venetians with goods to be sold on commission; and they were also bill brokers. In the middle of the sixteenth century, the Government of the city of Antwerp entered a protest, on similar grounds, to the Imperial decrees against the Jews. It is a remarkable thing, Mr. Sombart declares, that the brief space during which Antwerp became the commercial centre and the money-market of the world should have been just that between the coming and the going of the Marannos, or crypto-Jews. In the seventeenth century the Sous-Intendant of Languedoc said that, without the Jews, the trade of Bordeaux and of the whole province would be "inevitably ruined." In the same century, the Dutch Government had a period of real anxiety lest the Dutch Jews should transplant themselves to England. About this time the Jews were regarded as indispensable to the growth of Hamburg. On one occasion the Senate asked that permission should be given for synagogues to be built; otherwise, they feared, the Jews would leave Hamburg, putting the city in danger of sinking to a mere village.

But even such contemporary evidence is far from convincing. We must find from the original sources what contributions the Jews made to the building up of modern economic life from the end of the fifteenth century onward—the period when Jewish history and general European economic progress tended in the same direction. Mr. Sombart's study of these sources appears to have been inexhaustible: the results which he submits for our judgment are voluminous and infinitely varied in character. In the development of his argument from the point of view of statistics, he discusses the quickening of international trade, the foundation of modern states and colonies, the predominance of commerce in economic life, the growth of the capitalistic point of view. Summed up, the importance of the Jews was twofold. On the one hand, they influenced the outward form of modern capitalism; on the other, they gave expression to its inward spirit. Above all others, they endowed economic life with its modern spirit; they seized upon the essential idea of capitalism, and carried it to its highest development.

What was it that enabled the Jew to exercise so decisive an influence in the process that made modern economic life what it is? Mr. Sombart devotes half of a rather bulky volume to answering this question, and his narrative is absorbing. He explains the Jew, and yet, in so doing, gives him an added touch of mystery. He assigns four causes for the success of the Jews: their dispersion over a wide area, their treatment as strangers, their semi-citizenship, and their wealth. Yet he does not stop here; he asks if these objective circumstances alone explain the economic rôle of the Jews. Are there not perhaps special Jewish characteristics which must be taken into account? Unmistakably, there is an aptitude for Capitalism, the objective circumstances of which we have just mentioned. Midway between the objective and the subjective factors of Jewish development is the Jewish religion. Mr. Sombart thinks that this has the same leading ideas as capitalism: he sees the same spirit in the one as in the other. We must remember that a rigidly minded scribe, Ezra, was its author. It came into being not as an irresistible force, not as the expression of the deepest needs of contrite souls, not as the embodiment of the feelings of divinely inspired votaries, but on a deliberate plan, by clever deductions, and diplomatic policy, which was based on the cry, "Its religion must be preserved for the people." In all its reasoning it appeals to us as a creation of the intellect, a kind of thought and purpose projected into the world of organisms, mechanically and artfully wrought, destined to destroy and to conquer Nature's realm, and to reign itself in her stead. Just so does Capitalism appear on the scene; like the Jewish religion an alien element in the midst of the natural created world; like it, too, something schemed and planned in the midst of teeming life. The sheaf of salient features is bound together in one word—Rationalism. Rationalism is the characteristic trait of Judaism as of Capitalism, a deadly foe alike to irresponsible mysticism and to that creative power which draws its artistic inspiration from the passion-world of the senses.

Intellectuality is the fundamental quality of the Jew. As a result of extreme intellectuality his outlook is teleological or that of practical rationalism. Added to the teleological attitude we find a strong will, with a large fund of energy. Then, too, all Jews possess mobility of mind—quick perception, and mental versatility. These four elements, intellectuality, teleology, energy, and mobility, are the corner-stones of Jewish character, so complicated in its nature.

But even yet we have not touched bottom in our attempt to solve the question of the Jew. We know him objectively and statistically; we have studied his subjective processes, and discovered, as we think, his racial characteristics; but we have still before us the most interesting task of all—what was the origin of the Jewish genius? In answering this question, Mr. Sombart displays great dexterity in the use of anthropological facts and a remarkable fund of historical information, and strengthens us in the belief that the anthropological character of the Jews, no less than their intellectual attributes, has remained constant for thousands of years. Yet this does not prove that the Jewish genius is rooted in he race. Mr. Sombart lays emphasis on three points: the original aptitudes of the races from which the Jews sprang as exhibited in their mode of life, the manner in which the various elements mingled, and which of these aptitudes survived under the influence of Jewish history. From it all we form the conclusion that the Jewish characteristics are rooted in the blood of the race, and are not in any wise due to educative processes. Fundamentally, the importance of the Jews in the world's civilization, and more particularly in economic life, is due to the transplanting of an Oriental people among Northern races, and the cultural union of the two. A similar assertion has been made, not without an element of truth, regarding the civilization of the classical world, of the Greeks more especially, and also of that of the Italian Renaissance. It has been suggested that they resulted from the mixture of Northern peoples with the autochthonous inhabitants. The Jews are a desert people, a race which brought its special characteristics to maturity amid an environment which had not altered since the Ice Age. Their instincts when settled in Canaan remained nomadic. Mr. Sombart draws a fine contrast between forest and desert: they are the two great opposites which sum up differences in countries and their inhabitants. In the North man is brought into closer touch with nature than in the hot countries. Man is part and parcel with nature. In the North there are between Nature and even the most prosaic of men bonds of love and friendship unknown to the Southerner. In the South man regards Nature only as an instrument in the work of civilization. Would it be too much to say that the Jewish characteristics have received their peculiar impress from thou-

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sands of years of wandering in the Wilderness? Economic differences may be traced, at bottom, to the contrast between the nomadic and the agricultural life, between Saharism and Sylvanism.

THE JANSENISTS.

The Little Schools of Port Royal. By H. C. Barnard. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.

Whatever a person's religious views, he can hardly resist admiration for the intellectual and moral achievements of the Jansenists. A sect never numerous, and flourishing only for a short time, they made a deep impress on French literature and thought. For their famous schools, though the duration of these was scarcely fifteen years and they perhaps never had more than two hundred and fifty pupils in all, the Jansenists are no less deserving of admiration. Their ardent teachers, few in number, wrought as enduringly as the countless Jesuits who taught the thousands enrolled in the Jesuit colleges of the seventeenth century.

Mr. Barnard has written a very satisfactory study of the *Petites Ecoles.* The narrative, though at times dealing with minor matters of school administration and the details of the curriculum, is useful to the student of the general question of Jansenism. In fact, some people, puzzled or bewildered by discussions about sufficient and effective grace or the five propositions, may be glad to realize how practical were the "solitaries" in their retreat, and how by their teaching they anticipated later and more popular educationalists.

Mr. Barnard brings out the contrast between the soberness of Jansenist instruction and the florid Latinity of the Jesuits. He shows the *via media* followed by the contemporary Oratorians no less than the conservative scholasticism of the University of the day. The instruction in all these establishments was what would be called secondary, as opposed to primary and higher. The Jesuits based their teaching on the language of the Catholic Church and tried to turn out rhetoricians and men of the world. The Jansenists, without losing sight of Latin, favored Greek and French itself. The Jesuits, during a period of two hundred years, educated great men such as Condé, Bossuet, Descartes, Montesquieu, Corneille, Molière, Voltaire. The Jansenists, in a decade and a half, brought up only a handful, the greatest being Racine and the historian Lenain de Tillemont, whose writings were of service to Gibbon. But the achievements of Lancelot, Coustel, Nicole, and Walon de Beaupuis were not confined to schoolmastering: the "Logic" of Port-Royal has remained in use to our own times, and Lancelot's "Jardin des racines grecques," though now discarded, held its place for two hundred years in French schools.

The author of the present handbook devotes some attention to moot points in the history of the *Petites Ecoles:* the actual number of pupils, the dates of their disappearance. He has also "placed" Port-Royal in educational theory and related it to its educational predecessors. The volume is not marred, like many works in English or French subjects, by frequent misprints, though the name Fénelon receives superfluous accentuation in the appendix and the index, and the indexing of proper names under the prefix "de" is confusing.

THE WISDOM OF AGE.

Things Learned by Living. By John Bascom. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The ripe wisdom of a great teacher, and the pregnant summary of a long life of intellectual leadership, are compressed within the covers of this little book. We know of nothing in literature quite like it; perhaps the nearest analogy would be with the "Autobiography of John Stuart Mill." But Dr. Bascom is even freer than Mill from the bondage of events, and he is much less concerned than is Mill in tracing the development of his ideas and theories. With less than Mill's strict logical coherence, Dr. Bascom gives us in compensation flashes of imaginative insight; instead of the even and rather colorless clarity of Mill's style, we find in Dr. Bascom a style compact, rugged, sometimes obscure, but abounding in memorable and poetic phrase, and rising at times into noble eloquence. In style "Sartor Resartus," if its calculated oddity were left out, would be more nearly a parallel. Events, chosen for their significance and presented always with the illuminating comment of maturer judgment, are dismissed in the first chapter—the longest in the book, to be sure, and not the least interesting. Succeeding chapters deal with Health, Recreations, Persons, Forms of Work, and Writings. Finally, there are three chapters in which Dr. Bascom has distilled the essence of his experience and his beliefs: The Formula of Personal Life, The Formula of Social Life, and Religion.

Of old New England stock, with clerical traditions, John Bascom was born at Genoa, N. Y., in 1827. His father, a country minister, died a year later, and his mother was left in extreme poverty, with the task of bringing up four children. Of that brave and sternly religious mother, with her hidden tenderness, who "coveted and deserved more affection than she was able to win," we get many glimpses:

> Often at the close of a summer Sabbath I sat on the ground, while my mother milked, and learned from her lips the catechism, till I could find my way along its rugged path of words, deep, solemn, impenetrable. . . . I hardly know how the same amount of inexhaustible impression could have been secured more quickly and more efficiently. Those ideas which, at best, only glimmer before the mind and are constantly losing themselves in mist and darkness, play the same part in the spiritual imagination as do bold, rugged, inaccessible mountains in the landscape. The world is wholly different because of them. Its magnitude and mystery are indefinitely increased.

One is tempted to linger over these charming sketches and impressions of a sensitive childhood in the country. What a characteristic picture is that of Benjamin Joy, the village worthy whose deeply religious temper impressed the boy John, while his inconsistencies at the same time shocked him:

> His barn joined our garden; he used it as a devotional closet, and I frequently heard, with indescribable awe, the voice of earnest prayer. . . . I remember, however, that some incongruities of character, even then, startled me. I was always tenderly disposed toward animals and never inflicted pain except in sudden anger. I was astonished at the heat with which he flung stones, and at the unconscionable size of the stones he flung at hogs to be driven from his orchard.

College life at Williams the young man found almost altogether enjoyable. Looking back upon it, Dr. Bascom thinks it was profitable through student friendship and association rather than through formal instruction. Instruction, indeed, was much too formal, and was especially deficient in language and literature. "With a single exception, the instructors in my college life were little more than driven stakes to which we were tethered." Praisers of the good old times will find not much to encourage them here. After his graduation in 1849 Bascom tried teaching and the study of law before deciding to enter the theological seminary. His return to teaching was "not a premeditated result, but one which grew out of circumstances." He adds:

> It has been a decided preference with me, though the principle bears a somewhat passive and feeble appearance, to shape my choices to conditions I had not myself secured. I have not liked to apply for places nor to force results. I have loved to feel that the shuttle of life was not driven both ways by the same mechanical, calculated stroke—that it played between those wide providences which rule the world and my own immediate purposes under them. . . .

Perhaps it was this wise acceptance that gave to whatever Dr. Bascom said or did a sense of authority, of inevitableness.

At Williams he occupied the chair of rhetoric for nineteen years; then came the call to the presidency of the University of Wisconsin. At Williams he had to fight for freedom of speech in religion; at Wisconsin for freedom of speech in politics. He speaks very briefly of the great development of that institution during his administration, and scarcely at all of the profound personal influence which he exerted over the students both there and at Williams. During this whole period, in addition to the work of teaching and administering, he was pursuing strenuous studies and writing surprisingly good books on a variety of subjects bewildering to a scholar of this generation. These things he did on a very slender margin of health, keeping at bay, as he says, many spirits of mischief by patient hygiene. After his resignation from Wisconsin in 1887, he intended to retire from active teaching; but

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the loss of the savings of a lifetime forced him to give up this plan. His loss was the infinite gain of many classes of students at Williams. In his previous period of teaching there, he had introduced English literature and æsthetics into the curriculum; now he introduced sociology. He continued giving regular courses until 1903; and the reviewer can bear personal testimony to the extraordinary vitality and power of his teaching during its latest years.

Almost everywhere the book tempts quotation. It is hard for a lover of mountains to pass by the noble praise of mountains in the chapter on Recreations; it is hard for a teacher to leave unquoted the admirable discussion of what constitutes good teaching in the chapter on Forms of Work. We can only refer to the brilliant and searching, though not altogether sympathetic, characterization of Mark Hopkins in the chapter on Persons. Williams had two teachers of the first rank in the last century, and it is interesting to see how, when they were working together, they must have complemented each other.

Great teachers owe their influence and success to commanding personal force. It is strange that so few of them have been able to make the written word carry even a portion of their power; they seem often to have striven to write impersonally, as if they did not realize that in literature, as in the classroom, personality is everything. "Things Learned by Living" is a notable exception to this rule. To one who knew Dr. Bascom, at least, the very tones of his voice seem to ring in sentences like these:

> If we once more strike in, in this long race, we shall find that the inner energies, the inspirations of the conflict, are not evenly divided between us and our adversary, the senseless and dull soul of things, but that they are all with us, the last living force of things.
>
> The mind is always and above all things entitled to the truth. . . . The very fact that there is so much misapprehension to be removed, so much resistance to be overcome, is ground and reason for haste. If the morning is cold and misty, so much the greater occasion for the sun.

Dr. Bascom never surrendered to the reaction towards conservatism and compromise that most men yield to as they grow old. The wisdom of age came to him in rich measure; but he never bartered for it the priceless wisdom of youth. No disillusioned cynic could see more clearly or state more powerfully the apparent hopelessness of individual effort; yet out of the very conditions of hopelessness his indomitable spirit draws faith in liberty. And no youthful idealist could be a more ardent lover of truth, or could be governed by a more imperious faith in her conquering and redeeming power.

[We omit Notes from this issue owing to the large amount of kindred matter in the Educational Supplement. The omission of certain other usual features is explained on similar grounds.—Ed. The Nation.]

Drama

THE DRAMA LEAGUE OF BOSTON.

The interests of the Boston League are so closely bound up with those of its sire, the Drama League of America, that, often, when the child is speaking, the parent is speaking also; nevertheless, the younger league has made—and is making—history of its own, dictated by conditions peculiar to Boston.

The Boston League is the largest of the offshoot branches; having borne on its membership roll, during its three years of life, an average of over twenty-three hundred avowed supporters. It has also been fortunate in its president, Professor Baker, of Harvard University, under whose wise leadership the League has been kept from temptations to join the repertory movement, with its gilded illusions and annual corpses. Two distinct avenues are open: the Drama League movement, which links itself with the practical stage, seeking to improve its conditions; and the repertory movement, which, holding aloof from the stage as we know it, seeks to draw a special audience to itself. No one can, at this moment, look far enough into the future to foresee the outcome of these two movements; it would seem wise to let each pursue its own course.

To win ticket-buying audiences for the worthy play as we know it, the Drama League of America has had, from the start, an eminently practical working idea—the idea, namely, of issuing bulletins. It is hard to dissociate the movement from these bulletins. Its success is bound up with them. Consequently they should be prepared with the utmost care, no effort being spared to raise them from mere news-announcements to critical and educational documents. The Boston bulletins deservedly rank high for their analytic criticism, formed on the basis of a liberal appreciation; their public appeal could be augmented by applying a method of criticism more genuinely interpretative, which *pari passu* would add a more vital judicial estimate. This suggestion is made with full appreciation of the arduous task confronting the Play-Going Committee and the ensnaring difficulties besetting its labors. Special notice, for reasons other than critical, should be given to the bulletin issued at the opening of the season of 1911-12, which brought a list of the principal plays of the preceding season in the cities of New York, Boston, and Chicago, with a numerical record of their performances, and also to the bulletin issued in September of that year on the Irish Players, which fixed the dialect of each writer and contained a terse account of the whole repertory.

That the Boston members have actually been influenced in their theatre-going by the League's bulletins has been shown by a post-card canvass, though, it must be admitted, the responsibility was not felt as keenly as one would wish. Perhaps the best results were accomplished in making successful the engagements of the Manchester Company and the Irish Players. Disapprovals of the League's recommendations have been few. The post-card canvass brought to light other important facts; for instance, a lessening of interest on the part of Boston members in musical comedies and farces, since bulletined plays of this sort received the lowest scores of attendance.

If the supporters of the good cause in Boston failed to respond with whole-souled enthusiasm to all the bulletins sent out, their enthusiasm brought to bear upon the lecture entertainments offered by the League has been given in overflowing measure—literally, for the aisles of the theatres where most of them took place were often crowded with women and—yes, there were also men—who could find no seats. The managers, who in the beginning met the whole movement with scorn and a sneer, would never have unbent had they not seen the leaguers together in a body. Ocular demonstration did it. These lectures were more than mere sweetmeats. They have had an intrinsic educational value, in awakening a more intimate understanding of the art of the drama, and have been potent factors in changing the whole social atmosphere about the theatre. People talk more about the theatre than they used to before the days of the League; actors and actresses are seen more frequently at social gatherings; and professors from the other side of the Charles, beyond the red brick gateways, are melting theatreward: they go more often to the theatre, some are even willing to appear with the star of the troupe before the footlights and declare, in l ng pent-up lighter vein, their interest in the living stage.

The educational influence of the Boston League has passed beyond its own immediate border. Its advice and assistance have from time to time been sought by clubs, societies, schools, and individuals; largely in matters of that important branch of play activity, the amateur theatricals, where taste for the art of the theatre is forming. It has given assistance of this kind to nearly a hundred organizations, and has prepared a comprehensive list of plays for amateurs, based upon material gathered to meet these requests for aid. As to the discrimination shown in the selection of the plays, I cannot speak; it is plainly evident, however, that this special service is materially extending the usefulness of the League. Here, indeed, may be found one of the League's sources of life. For the fact cannot be concealed that the members of the League, certainly a large part of them, come from a class of people supposed to know a little more about the needs of the theatre than the infinitely larger class outside its own borders. To reach this larger class must, in the end, be the League's chief aim. It will be the wave on which alone the idea of the circuit-support of the worthy play can successfully ride. The League must seek to enlarge the circle of its usefulness from the few to the many; it must try to come into close touch with the young generation; it must endeavor to acquire a trusted influence over all other

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smaller organizations engaged in matters dramatic; in particular, with special affectionate consideration, it must lend a helping hand to the worthy American play and playwright; it must stand before the people as the custodian in matters of dramatic conscience. The influence of the League is just beginning to be felt; the possibilities of its becoming a people's organization are great.

The Boston League has recently appointed an organizing secretary, and hopes soon to strengthen its position as a centre and further the whole scheme of the national organization, by the establishment of other leagues in the larger towns and cities of New England.

Important services have been rendered by the publications prepared by members of the Drama Study Committee of the Boston League. Of these, special mention must be made of the selected list of "Essays and Books about the Drama and the Theatre," prepared by Mr. Frank Chouteau Brown, issued in 1912, with a supplementary list, issued recently; also of "The New Irish Drama," prepared by Prof. Katharine Lee Bates, of Wellesley College, issued in 1911. Both of these monographs are commendable contributions; the one, to the bibliography of dramatic literature, the other to the history of the new Irish dramatic movement.

ROBERT M. WERNAER.

"WARS OF THE WORLD."

There is much to be said for the spectacular when it pretends to be that and nothing more. Only when what is artistic in itself is subordinated to the merely spectacular, as was the case with the last production at the Hippodrome, Gilbert and Sullivan's "H. M. S. Pinafore," is it time to raise a protest. In their present production the management of the Hippodrome have happily not repeated that desecration of a work of art. "Wars of the World" is, as such a production should be, composed especially for spectacular presentation. The dialogue is of entirely secondary interest and the appeal is almost wholly to the eye. The first act is by far the most interesting and original and follows more closely than the second act (the third is simply the usual Hippodrome "Fountain") the theme propounded. The second episode, showing an abbey in a forest, a religious procession, the dedication of crusaders, a joust, and a merry rout of Robin Hood and his men, is perhaps the most beautiful. Another effective episode is that dealing with the Civil War, and the succeeding tableau, showing "the Price of War," is commendable for its restraint. In the second act the interest wanes somewhat and in the matter of good taste some of the Mexican scenes are open to question. On the whole, however, "Wars of the World" is to be commended as a magnificent spectacle, well engineered and well rehearsed, which is worth seeing, once at any rate.

S. W.

Sir Herbert Beerbohm Tree is beginning his preparations for the celebration in 1916 of the tercentenary of Shakespeare's death. He intends to produce at His Majesty's Theatre the chronicle plays, beginning with "King John" and ending with "Henry VIII."

Music

Liège has been called the cradle of violinists. Among the famous wielders of the bow who came from that heroic city are Ysaye, César Thomson, Edouard Dethier, Ovide Musin, and the violoncellist Jean Gerardy. The great composer César Franck was also born at Liège.

Eighteen members of the Philadelphia Orchestra are fighting for Germany and two for France, but the conductor, Stokowski, is back safe from Europe, minus his baggage. He managed, however, to save the score of Mahler's eighth symphony, which he will produce on March 5 and 6 with a chorus of one thousand singers and an orchestra increased to 125 men. It will be the first performance in America of this colossal work.

Philadelphia has a new vocal society known as the Choral Art Club. Its founder and director is Alexander Matthews, and the membership is made up of prominent local singers. Its purpose is to present choral compositions of a wide range, from Palestrina and Bach to the latest products of the French, Russian, and English schools.

For this year's festivals in Portland and Bangor, Me., Mr. W. R. Chapman has a chorus of 800, and the list of soloists includes Emma Eames and Emilio De Gogorza, Cordelia Lee (violinist), Helena Dardinel (pianist), Nina Morgana, Artha Williston, Florence Otis, Jean Cooper, Salvatore Giordano, Millo Picco, Ernest J. Hill, Carl Morris, and Cuyler Black. The Bangor dates are October 1, 2, 3; the Portland dates, October 5, 6, 7. The Portland festival will be held in the new Auditorium, which will be dedicated on the opening night. Portland is distinguished as being the only American city that has a municipal organ and an organist of the first rank paid by the city. The organ is the gift of Cyrus H. K. Curtis and the organist is Will C. Macfarlane, formerly organist of St. Thomas's Church and the Temple Emanu-El, New York. Mr. Curtis's desire was that the organ might become a vital factor in the life of the Portland people; and his wish has been realized. In the season of 1912 and 1913 over 225,000 persons attended the various recitals, concerts, Sunday afternoon services, with half-hours of organ music, and summer afternoon recitals.

Among the novelties promised in Milan during the coming winter season—if there is one—are two new one-act operas by Mascagni, entitled "L'Allodoletta" and "La Faida di Commune"; Giordano's "Madame Sans Gêne"; Franchetti's "Notte di Leggenda"; Pizzetti's "Fedra"; De Lara's "The Three Masks," and Richard Strauss's "Legend of Joseph."

Ossip Gabrilowitsch and his wife (the daughter of Mark Twain) were in Switzerland when the war began. Their manager, Loudon Charlton, announces that these two distinguished artists will without doubt make their promised American tour during the coming season.

The industrious Max Reger has completed still another work, a set of Variations on a Theme by Mozart. It is to have its first performance—war permitting—at one of the Gewandhaus concerts in Leipzig, under the direction of Arthur Nikisch, next winter. Among the other works chosen by Nikisch for these concerts—which used to be the most famous in Europe—are Korngold's Sinfonietta, the second symphony of a new Viennese composer named Franz Schmidt, Bruckner's Ninth, Liszt's "Faust," Strauss's "Don Quixote" and "A Hero's Life," Tchaikovsky's "Manfred," the F major symphony of Goetz, Stravinsky's "Le Sacre du Printemps," Ravel's "Ma Mère l'Oy."

Marie von Bülow, the widow of the eminent pianist, is no longer president of the German Brahms Society. She resigned because of certain statements regarding her husband made in the official Brahms biography by Max Kalbeck.

It is rather surprising that two of the world's greatest national anthems were created by prominent native composers. Haydn wrote the Austrian "Gott erhalte Franz den Kaiser," while the Russian hymn, the most majestic and inspiring of all patriotic tunes, was composed by Alexis Lvoff: and what is more astonishing still, was composed to order. The story of how it happened is told in detail by Lvoff in his memoirs, and is quoted in English by Mr. Montagu-Nathan's recently published "History of Russian Music" (Charles Scribner's Sons).

"Wagner as Man and Artist" is the title of the latest book on the Bayreuth master. It is by Ernest Newman, and the American publishers are E. P. Dutton & Co. Mr. Newman has not tried to write a new biography of Wagner, having "shrunk appalled from the magnitude of the task." As his book was going to press, he "learned that a new edition of his correspondence, containing some two thousand hitherto unpublished letters, is to appear under the editorship of that indefatigable Wagner researcher, Dr. Julius Kapp. But," he adds, "it ought to be possible to reconstruct the man from the 2,700 letters of his that we already have, though the picture will no doubt need some filling-in, and perhaps some corrections in detail when Dr. Kapp's edition is available."

A hymn to Napoleon III and a fanfare called "The Crown of Italy" have been discovered among the unpublished compositions of Rossini. When he died, in 1868, there were found among his papers no fewer than 154 instrumental pieces and songs that had not been printed. His widow was willing to sell them at once, but she demanded so large a sum that they were left on her hands. Five years later they were sold, but only four of them were given to the public. A recent number of the *Guide Musical* contains an article on these miscellaneous unpublished works of the great opera composer. The manuscripts are bound in sixteen volumes; among them are seventy-four numbers for the voice, an "album of nothings" for piano, a group of twelve pieces for children, and four entitled 'Hors d'œuvre" (radishes, anchovies, cucumbers, and butter), which seems to indicate that the composer of "The Barber of Seville" anticipated one of the latest phases of programme music. There is a "Hygienic Prelude," and a set of waltzes with the following titles: "Anti-dance Waltz," "Mourning Waltz," "Valse Torturée," "Halting Waltz," "Boudoir Waltz."

After the recent production in London by a Russian company of the opera-ballet called "Coq d'Or," with two casts, one of which sang while the other acted what was sung, it was pointed out in the *Telegraph* that this method of presenting a work was by no means

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new, as most of the spectators imagined. In the twelfth edition (1835) of Adam's "Roman Antiquities," the following information is given: "Livius Andronicus, who was the first Roman to write a regular play, A. U. C. 512, and who acted in his own compositions, 'being obliged by the audience frequently to repeat the same part, and thus becoming hoarse, he asked permission to employ a boy to sing to the flute, while he acted what was sung (*canticum agebat*), which he did with the greater animation as he was not hindered by using his voice,'"

Finance

TWO INCIDENTS OF WAR TIME.

The two incidents of the past week whose bearing on the financial situation is of chief importance were the concerted movement of the New York banks to take care of New York city's maturing European obligations (thereby relieving the deadlock in foreign exchange which has existed since the war began), and the assurance that the European war itself would be prolonged, and not brought to a sudden close, even by the fall of Paris.

The problem which confronted our banks had to do with requirements of $100,000,000 in the financing of New York city, and it was greatly complicated by the fact that approximately $80,000,000 short-term notes of the municipality, placed on the European market at various dates before the war broke out, were due to mature between now and 1915. The providing for these requirements, in face of the present abnormal home and international banking conditions, involved two questions. First came the arrangement to advance the total sum required, for use by the city as its needs arise; secondly, arrangement to pay off the notes maturing in London, to the extent that they should not be renewed by the foreign holders. As to the first, it was manifest that preservation of the city's credit is the absolutely paramount consideration. New York must pay its bills, and the banking community must provide the means. This conclusion was not open to dispute, if the financial good name of the American community was to be preserved.

Payment for such of the city obligations as are held in London involved some more perplexing considerations. To the extent that foreign holders would not consent to renewal, the payment would technically necessitate purchase of something like $80,000,000 foreign exchange. Our grain and other exports will provide a part of this; the balance could be met only through sending gold to Ottawa, there to be credited to the Bank of England and drawn against as a London credit. Our banks quite naturally dislike to reduce their cash reserves, under present conditions; but this is a proper and necessary use of them.

New York bank reserves, it is true, are already considerably below the 25 per cent. ratio to deposits maintained in ordinary times. But the New York banks still held, at last Saturday's return, a reserve of 23 per cent.—far more than that required by the new banking law—and in that reserve was included $260,000,000 specie, practically all gold and exclusive of $57,000,000 held by trust companies. To draw on this reserve, for such a purpose, would be to accept the lesser evil in order to avoid the incomparably greater.

These aspects of the situation the New York banks recognized promptly, and with commendable public spirit. All of them are to subscribe, in proportion to their several resources, for the new loan of $100,000,000 to be placed by the city. Each, again in proportion to its individual resources, is to guarantee to provide either exchange on London or gold for export, to the extent that the foreign holders of the maturing city notes call for redemption. The immediate effect has been sudden lifting of the deadweight on international exchange. Sight drafts on London sold, last week, as high as $5.06 to the pound sterling, whereas $4.89 is the maximum in normal times, because at any higher rate gold can be used more cheaply than ordinary exchange bills to settle foreign dues. But the news of the attitude of our banks sent the rate down almost immediately to $4.97½.

The other important development which financial markets had to consider was the very positive assurance in the British Premier's Guildhall speech that the English Government is looking for a long and obstinate war. This, to be sure, has been the feeling of this financial community ever since the German forward movement from Belgium into France began. The belief was perhaps a little shaken by the sweeping successes of the German campaign in France, by the prodigious losses which must have been incurred, and by the nearer possibility of the fall of Paris. Last Friday's London speeches, however, by leaders both of Government and Opposition—supplemented, next day, by news of the joint agreement by England, France, and Russia that none of the Governments would treat for peace unless by consent of the other two—prove that England is drawing no such inferences of slackening in the campaigns against Germany, and to that conclusion we must adapt our own affairs.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Bacon, J. D. To-day's Daughter. Appleton. $1.35 net.
Bédier, J. The Romance of Tristan and Iseult. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 net.
Cable, George W. Gideon's Band. Scribner. $1.35 net.
Chamberlain, A. C. The Bailey Twins. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1 net.
Croy, Homer. When to Lock the Stable. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. $1.25 net.
Delamare, H. E. The Reformation of Jimmy. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.20 net.
Ferber, Edna. Personality Plus. F. A. Stokes Co. $1 net.
Galsworthy, John. The Country House. Scribner. $1.35 net.
Marshall, Archibald. The Greatest of These. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.35 net.
Stevens, E. S. Sarah Eden. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.35 net.
Stoddard, W. O. Captain of the Cats-Paw. Harper. $1 net.
Tomlinson, Paul G. To the Land of the Caribou. Scribner. $1 net.
Vase, Gillan. A Great Mystery Solved. McBride, Nast & Co. $1.50 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Arnold, Winifred. Little Merry Christmas. F. H. Revell Co. 60 cents net.
Browne, Edgar. Phiz and Dickens. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4 net.
Burgess, G. Unabridged Dictionary. F. A. Stokes Co. 80 cents net.
Hartley, C. G. The Age of Mother-Power.
Pollak, Gustav. International Perspective in Criticism. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2 net.
Wade, Mary H. The Light Bringers. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1 net.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Begbie, Harold. The Proof of God. F. H. Revell Co. 75 cents net.
Brown, W. A. Modern Theology and the Preaching of the Gospel. Scribner. $1.25 net.
Chamberlain, H. S. Immanuel Kant. Translated by Lord Redesdale. Vols. I and II. John Lane Co.
Clark, F. E. The Holy Land of Asia Minor. Scribner. $1 net.
Horne, Charles Silvester. The Romance of Preaching. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25 net.
Scott, E. F. The Beginnings of the Church. Scribner. $1.50 net.
Shaw, John Balcom. The Angel in the Sun. F. H. Revell Co. $1 net.
Witley, L. V. H. The Ministry of the Unseen. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

James, H. G. Applied City Government. Harpers. 75 cents.
Les Cruautés Bulgares en Macédoine Orientale et en Thrace. Athènes: Imprimerie P. D. Sakellarios.
Sloane, William M. Party Government in the United States and America. Harpers. $2 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Batiffol, Louis. The Duchess de Chevreuse. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3 net.
Gimbaud, Louis. The Love Letters of Juliette Drouet to Victor Hugo. McBride, Nast & Co. $2.50 net.
McClure, S. S. My Autobiography. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.75 net.
Pieris, P. E. Ceylon: The Portuguese Era. Volumes I and II. Colombo: Colombo Apothecaries Co. Price Rs. 15.
Reed, John. Insurgent Mexico. Appleton. $1.50 net.
Rowland, D. An Official Guide to the Historical Materials in the Mississippi Department of Archives and History. Nashville, Tenn.: Brandau-Craig-Dickerson Co.

TRAVEL.

Flitch, J. E. Crawford. An Idler in Spain. McBride, Nast & Co. $2 net.
Schofield, A. T. Where He Dwelt. Rand, McNally. $1.50 net.
Spens, A. B. A Winter in India. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75 net.

SCIENCE.

Beard, D. C. Shelters, Shacks, and Shanties. Scribner. $1.25 net.
Münsterberg, Hugo. Psychology. Appleton. $1.75 net.
Smith, A. Corbett. The Problem of the Nations. Paul E. Hoeber. $1 net.

DRAMA.

Brownell, A. The Unseen Empire. Harper. $1.25 net.
Galsworthy, John. Plays: Third Series. Scribner. $1.35 net.

TEXTBOOKS.

A Course in Citizenship. Edited by Ella L. Cabot and others. Houghton Mifflin Co.

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The Nation.

EDUCATIONAL SUPPLEMENT SECTION

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THE INFLATED A.B.

Not long ago a member of one of our university faculties, while seeking some recent literature in mathematical logic, discovered to his amazement that the room in which he had expected to find the mathematical seminary was equipped with six gas ranges and a complete outfit of pots and pans. Continuing his search, he was confronted in the next room by a number of dressmaker's "forms." On the floor below he found one of the college's business staff teaching a class in the art of bookkeeping. And not far away one class was receiving instruction in the elements of machine-work, another in the elements of joinery. All of these were courses in "the college of liberal arts"; and in all of them the students, with a satisfaction not unmixed with humor, were receiving credit towards the degree of bachelor of arts. In this connection we learn that one of the most distinguished State universities, where credit is given for football, rejoices in the possession of a hat-trimming expert. Clearly, this is an academic age. In the State of Michigan one cannot settle comfortably into a barber's chair without facing a certificate to the effect that the man behind the chair has successfully passed his canonical examinations—though not yet in the State university. But it is only a question of time when the tonsorial art will take its place among the other liberal arts and when in decency and consistency a few distinguished members of this, as well as of the gastronomic and sartorial professions, will have to be rewarded from time to time with the honorary degree of doctor of laws.

Are we to say, however, that a field of inquiry so deeply related to human well-being as that of the home—and withal so full of perplexities—is intellectually contemptible? Or that intelligence in this field is without the flavor of culture? Perhaps it would be safer to say that every field is worth cultivating precisely for what it can be made to yield. Clearly nothing is more important than a fine intelligence in the home, but so far there is no evidence to show that such intelligence is developed through domestic science. It is a little hard to believe that any laboratory of cooking can furnish an experience comparable in informing power with that to be gathered in a well-ordered kitchen in a household that respects good food.

The real question, however, is whether proficiency in the arts of cooking, or sewing, or joinery, or what not (and why not, then, the tonsorial art?)—a proficiency, we must remember, which is likely to be surpassed by that of men and women of little education who have practiced the crafts—is to count towards a degree which by common consent has been reserved hitherto for the recognition of liberal culture. A generation ago a similar question was raised in connection with the sciences—physics, chemistry, and biology. And the question is still an open one so far as training in science consists chiefly in weighing and measuring or in drawing from microscopic views. Yet the student who grasps the conceptions underlying the sciences has gathered a rich intellectual heritage accumulated through at least three centuries of strenuous and painful thinking. The newer vocational sciences have no such endowment to offer. Domestic science, to repeat our illustration, is without a history; it possesses no organized body of knowledge; and its countenance shows none of the marks of seasoned thought. It is chiefly a collection of odds and ends from the other sciences gathered for the sole purpose of having a "domestic" science, and cemented together in a mass of the trivial and the obvious. In the State universities, which are mainly responsible for enrolling domestic science among the instruments of culture, its purpose is frankly that of advertising, of "making the university strong with the people."

For moral justification we shall be referred, of course, to the easy-going theory of the democracy of studies, from which we learn that every department of human life is capable of developing an intellectual content, and therefore the possibilities of culture. To this ancient contention we need only reply that an academic degree is supposed to stand for developed actualities. And it is no faith in democracy that underlies the inflation of the degree in arts. We have only to remember that those who stand for the superior, if not, indeed, the exclusive, value of a training in science have as a rule indignantly rejected the degree of bachelor of science; and as for a "Bachelor of Education" or a "Bachelor of Home Economics," it is not to be thought of. The truth is that, amidst all the emphasis laid upon practical ends and all the scorn both of the humanities and of pure science, vocationalism is ill at ease without the social stamp of culture. In estimating the vocational motive to which our colleges, and first among them the supposedly democratic State universities, are now appealing for an increase of numbers, this ele-

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ment must not be overlooked. It will help to explain why, while ministering, as they profess, to the most varied needs, they prefer to recognize no distinction either of value or of character in undergraduate studies. Not an honest democracy, where each subject and each man stands squarely upon his own feet, is the end in view, but a spurious aristocracy.

And this is the vice of the whole matter. Theoretically there is no reason why different educational standards should not be represented side by side in the same institution—if only they are kept distinct, but the great question at present is whether a thorough general education, having for its chief aim mental culture and discipline, is not a better preparation for any walk in life than a specialized training. The only proof of the pudding is in the eating. The attempt to solve a question of these dimensions in the psychological laboratory is futile. But no proof is possible at all unless the product of each theory of training bears its distinctive mark. It looks, however, as if our academic democracy were resentful of distinctions and preferred to obscure them rather than bring them to the test. Not only do the vocationists pretend to be apostles of culture; the representatives of pure science, and sometimes of the humanities, are on their side eager to show that they, too, have a vocational importance and can "place" their graduates in well-paying positions. The final outcome is the colorless mixture of aims and of values embodied in the denatured A.B.

It must be only a question of time when the degree of bachelor of arts will confer as little distinction as a passport and less than a life-insurance policy. When, finally, it stands neither for mental culture nor for useful knowledge, then perhaps practical necessity, reinforcing the love of truth, will compel a revision and a distinction of educational values; and in the first place a more guarded definition of liberal culture. Such an investigation need not be confined to the vocational studies. It may with equal propriety consider the merely edifying and "socializing" courses in literature, ethics, sociology, and civics which are supposed vaguely to be a "preparation for citizenship." Meanwhile there should be a possibility of success even now for a college which would restrict the courses leading to the degree of bachelor of arts to those of proved intellectual content. The body of students would not be large, but (more to the point) it would be large enough; and the degree must shortly confer an envied distinction.

The Decline of Lecturing

By L. P. JACKS.

WILL THE BOOK KILL THE CHAIR?—LECTURES BECOMING MORE AND MORE A SUBORDINATE INSTRUMENT OF TEACHING.

In a famous scene of "Notre-Dame" Victor Hugo puts into the mouth of the Archdeacon a prophecy which may serve as a motto for the present theme. The time is the end of the fifteenth century; printing has just been invented. On the table of the Archdeacon's cell is a newly printed volume from Nuremberg; outside, seen through the window, is the architecture of the cathedral. "*This*," says the Archdeacon, with his hand on the book, "will kill *that*"—pointing to the cathedral. "*Ceci tuera cela.*" Then, commenting on the words, Victor Hugo adds that they bear a double sense. Literally they foretell the decay of church-architecture as a means for the expression of the human spirit—a prophecy which time has fulfilled. Symbolically they indicate the gradual supersession of the spoken by the printed word. "C'était la chaire et le manuscrit, la parole parlée et la parole écrite, s'alarmant de la parole imprimée. . . . Cela voulait dire: La presse tuera l'église."

Will the prophecy be fulfilled in the second sense to the degree in which it has been fulfilled in the first? Will the pulpit and the chair gradually lose their power as means of expression and as instruments of education under the influence of reading habits and cheap books?

The question has been often asked, and some may think that history has already supplied the answer. In certain respects it is obvious that both the chair and the pulpit have lost a measure of their power. The clergyman has long ceased to be the sole instructor of the people in matters religious. Very pathetic indeed is the delusion still prevalent in certain clerical quarters that the knowledge of the laity about these things is limited to what the clergy choose to tell them. Thanks to the abundance of easily accessible literature, the laity are often better informed in respect of doctrine than are the clergy who profess to be their guides. Knowledge and criticism now produce a lively reaction to the word of the pulpit wholly unknown in the days when ignorance and submission prevailed in the pew. And conditions partly the same are operating upon the work of the "chair." Students are becoming less and less dependent on lecturers. In our ancient universities there are distinguished scholars with European reputations whose lectures are attended by a mere handful of students—if, indeed, any "hand" can be imagined sufficiently small to justify the metaphor. Had men of equal learning been similarly engaged in the fifteenth century, they would have drawn crowds of eager listeners from half the countries of Europe.

Along with the decay of interest in the audience there has been a parallel decline in the quality of the lectures, or the lecturers, themselves: no doubt the one thing is the cause of the other. I do not mean a decline of learning, or in the technical value of the matter offered; this may be as great as or even greater than before, and is certainly governed by higher standards. The decline has been in manner, expression, delivery. Concurrently with the growing ennui of the audience the lecturer himself grows dull and perfunctory. Lecturing, like architecture, tends to become a lost art. There are some, indeed, who draw large audiences, but they are decidedly a minority. The majority have never taken the trouble to study the technique of their business; highly equipped perhaps as scholars, of "pedagogic" they have little and of "rhetoric"—I use the term in its best sense—they have literally none. In the midst of conditions where lecturing is becoming more and more a subordinate instrument of teaching, they take no pains to acquire the power of impressing or persuading or even interesting their audience. They have knowledge; but they do not know how to communicate it by the spoken word. Their strength goes into their books, not into their lectures. *Ceci tuera cela.*

It is plain that a double, or reciprocal, process is here at work, tending, whichever side of it one considers, to destroy the art of lecturing. On the one hand, the scholar, the thinker, the teacher becomes more and more a writer of books, thereby obtaining a wider audience in the world at large, and the chance, and often the reality, of a higher remuneration. The learner, on the other hand, becomes a reader rather than a listener. Not only does he think that he can get all the instruction he wants from books, and get it cheaply, but he can also choose his own time. Few students, if asked whether they would derive the greater advantage from thirteen or fourteen hours a week spent in listening to the lectures of experts or from the same amount of time devoted to the literature of their subject, would hesitate for a moment to declare in favor of the latter. And they would give a double reason; they would tell you that the lectures were likely to be bad, while the literature, on the other hand, was good. Even of the very teachers whose classrooms the student attends he might say that their lectures were inferior to their books, the spoken word being often little else than a monotonous amplification of the written, or the mere addition of a mass of illustrative detail which a few books of reference would readily supply. He would probably indicate one or two among his teachers who still honor the lecturer's calling for its own sake and retain enough of the artistic temperament to select for oral teaching just that part of their knowledge which the living personality of the teacher is needed to enforce. But of the majority he would tell you a different, indeed, an opposite, tale. You would hear of professors who in the treatment of their subject take no care to

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disengage what is essential from what is subordinate; who seldom introduce the synoptic idea which requires the voice and face for the expression; who are exhaustive without being suggestive; whose lectures, in fact, would be more valuable if printed as footnotes to existing books.

Of this kind of teaching there is, beyond all doubt, a vast amount in all universities, and one can well believe that so far as education is concerned its results must be at best of no great importance, while at the worst they represent mere tedium and expenditure of time which might be far better employed both by the teacher and the taught. And time itself is becoming ever more precious in education. A good system of education, whatever else it may be, is one that wastes no time over an inefficient method. So vast is the range of modern knowledge, so extensive is the literature even of those subjects which come within the most old-fashioned curriculum, that a modern minute has the value of a mediæval hour—at least, for the student. And yet it must be confessed that universities—and I think this holds true in America as well as in Britain—still retain a method of teaching which could only be justified if printing had never been invented. Students are becoming acutely conscious of the evil. They are growing more and more reluctant to offer themselves as victims to the decayed art of lecturing. *De facto* they are right.

None the less deplorable is it that the art of lecturing should have been suffered to decay. No one could listen to the late William James, or Professor Bergson, not to mention many others, without realizing that light and inspiration may be found in the lecture-room which can be obtained nowhere else. Just because the range of modern knowledge is so vast, just because the printed sources from which knowledge may be drawn are so multitudinous and confusing, there is need of some means by which the student can be placed at the living centre of his subject. This can be provided only by the living personality of a master, and to the end of time there will be no other way. Deprived of this instrument, the educational process breaks up into confusion. Endow a man with a whole library of well-written books, but leave him without an inspiring personality at the centre of his subject, and the chances are a hundred to one that he will remain a dabbler.

This is not equally true in every subject—but it is true in a measure of all. The importance of the lecturer's function varies between wide extremes. I hardly dare to say when it stands at the lowest; but its highest level is probably reached in philosophy, a subject whose deepest meanings can hardly be rendered by the printed word, requiring rather to be interpreted by some personality in whom the doctrine has become, as it were, incarnate. The same may be said with yet greater emphasis of religion, so far as religion is the subject of direct teaching. It is among the teachers of these and cognate subjects that the best, and the worst, lecturers may be found to-day. There are a few men, relatively few that is, scattered through the universities of the Western world, who, as personal exponents of these things, have a power and influence which ranks them among the greatest of world forces. The debt of philosophy, and of students of philosophy to these men, is incomparably greater than that which is owed to any book or books, great as the latter debt may be. The grim prophecy of Victor Hugo's priest does not apply to them as yet. The art of printing has not superseded them—"*this*" has not killed "*that*." They remain as object lessons to prove the truth of Carlyle's saying, "The world has yet need of yonder talking man." Unfortunately, these men are exceptional.

The reverse side of this truth is equally worth consideration. Those branches of knowledge in which the lecturer's function is most precious are also those in which least good is to be expected from the mere dissemination of cheap literature. I doubt if culture is making any great gain from the multitude of popular books which deal with the philosophic sciences. There is little doubt that popular handbooks are responsible for the spread of gross misconceptions as to the whole nature of philosophic science. They encourage the notion that philosophy is a set of conclusions which can be learned, together with the arguments on which they are based, just as we may learn the Newtonian Physics. They obscure the truth that philosophy is essentially a *life*, a life which can hardly be communicated except by those in whom it already exists. When the book comes first and the living teacher becomes a mere commentator on its pages, the result at best is mere opinion; it is never philosophy.

I abstain from pursuing the question along lines with which I am less familiar. If there is any truth in the foregoing its application can be readily made to particular cases. My general conclusion is that the art of lecturing has fallen into deep decay at the very time when it is most needed to counteract other conditions. Out of the very wealth of modern knowledge arises the need for *selectors*, that is, for men who represent and embody just those elements of knowledge which can be translated into life. This is preëminently the lecturer's function. He is needed to represent the living interest, the *vital* importance of his subject. As a mere talking book, or a mere commentator on print, he misses his vocation and adds to the very evil which it is his business to cure.

Judged by the amount of lectures provided in educational institutions of one kind or another, one might conclude that the lecturer's office is at the very zenith of its glory. Judged by the quality of the lecturing, and the amount of interest it arouses in those for whom it is provided, one would reach a very different conclusion. It is a sad story of wasted effort and inability to read the signs of the times. It is an instance of doing over again what is far better done by another agency, namely, the printed book, and of neglecting to do what the printed book requires for its complement. The function of the lecturer to-day is extremely difficult; but it is essential that it should be performed. The very causes which have produced its decline clamor for its revival. If "this" kills "that" it also kills all that is best in itself. Obviously there is room for a great reform.

A New Battle of the Books

OR

THROWING OUT THE MIDDLE AGES.

(Suggested by the *Nation's* excursions into Allegory in the last Educational Number.)

A gentle knight was pricking along the path of rectitude and honor. He was clothed in the stately garb of old Rome. He was walking backwards, not because it was convenient, but in sign of protest. His squire, owing to defects of early training, walked somewhat uncertainly in the path of rectitude and honor. There was about him something of the insouciant air of fancy's child. His hand played with a collection of thunderbolts neatly tied with string. He was wandering blithely in the opposite direction from the majestically calm retrograde of his master, but such is the virtue of the path of rectitude and honor that they always came out at the same point.

"We must throw them out," the knight muttered from time to time. "We must throw them out."

"'Naturam expellas furcâ tamen usque recurret,' as Horace says," diffidently suggested the squire.

The eye of the knight kindled at the sound of the well-known vocables, but swiftly his brow darkened.

"Horatius! Horatius!" he protested. "We must get rid of this vile mediæval habit of referring thus familiarly to our great classic writers." And then he fell once more to muttering, "We must throw them out. We must throw them out."

"Sir knight——" ventured the squire.

"Do not call me *Sir* knight," was the slightly petulant interruption. "It suggests those absurd mediæval creatures who dedicated themselves to the accomplishment of impossible achievements."

"But are you not——?"

"No, I am not. I am a Roman knight of the equestrian order. Observe the narrow purple stripe on my toga. I intend to rehabilitate the word knight and purge it of its mediæval connotation." Then he took up once more, in a different key, the burden of his earlier meditation: "We must throw them out. We must throw them out."

The way being rather dusty and singularly devoid of company, the squire, too, found himself chanting, at first gently, but with rapidly increasing energy, "We must throw them out. We must throw them out." And

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others who were passing in various directions, sometimes a long way off from the path of rectitude and honor, took up the song: "We must throw them out. We must throw them out." The oftener they said it the more pleasure they derived from saying it.

Ere long they came to a castle, a very great way off from the path of rectitude and honor. The knight became furiously enraged at the sight of it. "What disgusting lack of balance and restraint," he cried. "How different from our dear Parthenon! We must destroy it at once!"

With great effort they picked their way across the intervening morass. At the gate sat two hideous giants. One masterly stroke and the uglier of the two giants, Sir Ulfilas, turned into thin air, and the other, though he had the strength of thirty men, fled without a blow. At his heels went off a crowd of lesser giants: one in homespun, dancing and singing as he went, whose name was Sir Balladino; another clad in tinsel and lame of a foot, called Sir Thopas; and with them went a swarm of monks and friars. One figure with an air of infinite patience stood as in a doubt what to do. He was not born a giant but a fay, and had long been held in base servitude by the giant race, forced to drudge and sweat at their bidding. Him the knight entreated not to run, promising that he would free him and heal of his great harms. But what became of sweetest Sir Will in the end we do not know.

Pressing forward undaunted through the obscure and devious passages of the castle, the knight, followed by a now large and various company, came at last upon the central room, in which sat a venerable wizard, his beard snow-white and his back against the wall. In his hand was a book of witchcraft. "Archimago," thundered the knight, brandishing his gleaming stylus, "Archimago, I have thee at last! It is for this I have labored so long; all that I have done tends towards this. Avaunt—pardon me, I should say *apage*, *procul*, get out! Undo this horrid spell."

What happened next is variously reported. The knight would have it that Archimago muttered as if in token of surrender: "Tempest, act five, scene one, lines fifty-four and following." But most aver that he paid not the slightest heed to all this hurly-burly, continuing in rapt contemplation of the page before him. What the knight did is, however, well known to all. Without pausing for a reply, he flung out his catechism with fine neo-classic vigor.

"Will you henceforward teach that the English language was invented by Dr. Johnson?"

"Will you hereafter use Gothic only in the sense of disgusting?"

"Do you acknowledge the supreme literary importance of Buddhism and Deism?"

There was a murmur of dissent from some of his followers at these questions which was not quelled at once by the knight's triumphant remark, "We have thrown them out."

H. M. A.

A Leaf Out of an Old Book

By PERCY HOLMES BOYNTON.

THE AMERICAN UNDERGRADUATE, PAST AND PRESENT—A MEANS SUGGESTED TO REHABILITATE THE TRADITION OF HARD WORK AT COLLEGE.

The important thing is to realize that the American college is deficient, and unnecessarily deficient, alike in earnestness and in pedagogical intelligence; that in consequence our college students are, and for the most part emerge, flighty, superficial, and immature, lacking, as a class, concentration, seriousness, and thoroughness.

This is enough to make any one think again—to wonder whether the situation is quite as discouraging as it seems, and whether it is worse now than it used to be. It tempts one first to dwell on the clever and self-confident investigator and the chances of his being misled when generalizing on so complicated a subject as the American undergraduate. Probably the American undergraduate will never be found, for the same reason that the great American novel will never be written—because the country is too big to be represented by one type. One is tempted to quibble. Yet even though the faithful student survives—Rollo grown up to be concentrated, serious, and thorough—there are enough of the other kind at college to make one speculate as to where they come from and how long they have flourished.

Apparently always. At any rate, they were well established when Milton mourned his college friend who tended "the homely, *slighted*, shepherd's trade," while the others were sporting

with Amaryllis in the shade
Or with the tangles of Neæra's hair.

And they seem to have thriven nobly for a hundred and fifty years until Wordsworth, sitting in Milton's old room one day, drank "libations" to his memory, hustling "ostrich like" away, just not too late to reach the evening chapel. To be sure it was Wordsworth's only carouse, but that is why he used to be so lonely at Cambridge.

I.

A century ago in America the whole college schedule seems to have been arranged on what modern skepticism would call the naïve assumption that students went to college primarily to study. There is not so much data at hand about the routine of an ordinary day as about matters which were more picturesque and exciting, but there is enough to banish all doubt. For example, Stephen Salisbury, Harvard, 1817, explained to his father:

I hope you will excuse my not writing more frequently, for I have so much to do now I am pressed for time, for I have (every other day) to-day to go to writting school from eight to ten after that I have to get four pages of Latin to recite at quarter past eleven we get out of recitation at twelve then we dine at one, then after dinner we have to get a lesson in Geometry to recite at four we are kept in the recitation till most five then we have prayers and immediately afterwards supper and in the evening we have to get three or four pages of latin to recite at six o'clock next morning so you see Sir we have full employment.

No wonder that with such a programme he had no time to punctuate. Even as it was, Father Salisbury seems not to have been sufficiently impressed, for a few days later he wrote:

I notice in your letters you often mention how hard you have to Study. I hope you do not View it as a task—but the most desirable and pleasant amusement.

Stephen, somewhat abashed, detailed another day: 6 A. M., chapel; 6:15, recitation; 7:30, breakfast; 9:00, French; 10:30, recitation; 11:15, lecture; 12:30, "commons time"; 2:00, lecture; 3:00, recitation. With the parental admonition in mind, he this time tempered his commentary.

The reppetition of these exercises is no doubt tedious to you, Mama, but how much more so must the performance of them. But perhaps tedious is not a proper word I meant to say fatiguing. They would appear sufficient to occupy our time to any reasonable person But beside all these the government have seen fit that we should attend another course of lecture to begin next week. . . . As to my studies Mama if my performance of my exercises equalled the labour I bestow on them I think I should do very well.

This somewhat dubious comment on his actual performance as a student seems not to have been ill-judged, for when the final honors were distributed Stephen had to content himself with a very modest position on the commencement programme.

To the worldly-wise student of to-day, the interest that centred in the old-time commencement exercises is marvellous to recall. It was a culmination of months of anxious preparation, weeks of anxiety before the appointments were made, and on the part of many, whole college life-times of emulous competition. As the length of the programmes was something preternatural, the critical question for the serious-minded was not as to getting a place as a speaker, but wholly as to what that place should be. Here are the words, for instance, of one J. Tallmadge, who took his degree at Brown in 1798. Early in March his heart is palpitating at that important crisis in which he and his class-mates are, in the jaunty epistolary language of the day, "to listen to the irrevocable mandate of Fate, in which our future destiny is to be pronounced, and upon which our future existence almost depends—I mean the allotment of our parts for commencement. Scarcely did I ever reflect on the nearer approach of that interesting and important hour but 'big round drops in piteous chase' roll from my eyes." It appears that in anxiety for advancement, the class is all studying furiously, "bowing with profound adoration" as they pass faculty members on the street; and not only that, but stealing portions of their

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orations from obscure eighteenth-century sources, apparently without serious penalty. Three weeks later Tallmadge writes again of the fateful day. "The night before, the class was so disturbed that"—as he records in a diction which does not seem quite that of the student to-day—"Morpheus, the ever-adorable god of sleep, deigns not to bless some of us with his presence." Exhausted in the morning, they go to chapel. "After prayers they all looked with anxious expectation. If you have ever seen the sable cat from under the barn door glare with her flaming eye-balls, imagine if you can endure the thought, twenty-seven of them in one row, with eyes, if possible, more terrible than usual, looking you full in the face, and you will have a good representation of our class and the deplorable situation of little *Jock*."

This cavalier title was intended to designate the president of the college. His announcements included the names of twenty-two, who were to speak at the great occasion. Maxwell, who was thirteenth on the list, talked with the president, "and at length told him it was a damned partial distribution," and went off in a rage to Newport. Another member of this same class, writing a fortnight after, shows that Tallmadge did not overstate the case: President Maxcy has been housed for a week; Professor Messer (who seems to have been well named with reference to the complications), has been treated with contempt by the students, among whom Sabine scowls, and Carey's eyes are still red.

The commencement day, which came at an uncanny time in midsummer, was a truly festive occasion for all friends of the college—so festive, indeed, that a Providence newspaper protested at the confusion into which a whole community and nearly a whole State were thrown. A ceremonial parade in the morning led the hypnotized audiences to a programme in "Old Baptist" from 9:00 to 12:00, and after a hurried collation, for two or three hours more of afternoon oratory. Unintelligible Latin and indistinct English held sway before the admiring crowd, after which the president conferred degrees on the little flock, who had paid their bills and subjected themselves to instruction for the prescribed four years.

The programmes were heavy as well as long. Cotton Mather at seventeen assailed the philosophy of Aristotle in so vigorous a Latin oration that the president would have stopped him had not the village pastor interceded, also in Latin: "*Pergat, quæso, nam doctissime disputat.*" Dear to the heart are these themes of young manhood: Philip Freneau and Hugh Henry Breckenridge in a dialogue at Princeton on "The Rising Glories of America"; Trumbull at Yale at the same period on "The Use and Advantages of the Fine Arts," and so on and so on down to Longfellow at Bowdoin in 1825 on "The Writers of America," of whom he disposed in seven minutes of fervidly youthful eloquence.

These oracular utterances, natural to any graduating student, were part of the daily experience of boys of a century or more ago. The chief student organizations of those days were the debating societies. They might be of the informal sort to which Emerson belonged, or they might, as was often the case, include in two rival organizations the whole membership of a college—all ruthlessly coralled without regard to their controversial tendencies. This sort of thing survived till well within the memory of many living college graduates. And the zest in electioneering was quite as great as that of fraternity rushing now. When President Angell was a student he recorded gravely that the campaign "was carried on with such vigor during the early weeks of the year that the freshmen had scarcely time left for their regular duties." If I were forced to choose, as he was, between the Philermenian and the United Brothers Societies, I can easily conceive of losing sleep and student energy in the face of such a dilemma. Emerson's journal of his junior and senior years tells us what they discussed in his society. March 6, 1820, "Which is the most conducive to individual happiness, a state of celibacy or matrimony?" "Which is the strongest passion, love or ambition?" March 20, "Whether the accession of the Canadas to the territory of the U. S. A. would be for the best interest of this country"; "Whether Cicero or Demosthenes be the greatest orator." March 21 of the next year, "Would it be beneficial to the students to spend much time in the acquisition of the polite accomplishment?" And the subjects for individual themes reported on these occasions were: "Envy wishes and then believes"; "Futurity"; "The Miseries of Human Life."

II.

But if the commencement exercises were the outgrowth of such ebullitions of youthful wisdom, the commencement occasions as a whole throw a light on a strikingly different phase of college life. One periodical protested in these terms as late as 1827:

> Of the vast concourse who visit the town on commencement day, but a very small proportion care a farthing about the literary exercises; they come only to see and to be seen—to indulge in hilarity, fun, and frolic—to visit their relatives, the theatre, and the circus; and then return to their homes, without deriving the least benefit.
>
> The lower and disorderly classes of society make the whole an affair of amusement, drink to excess, quarrel and fight, neglect their useful employments, get bloody noses, and a night's lodging in the bridewell. In the midst of the scenes of bustle and confusion, pickpockets are busily employed at their vocation, infamous women throng the town, counterfeiters, thieves, and swindlers are on the alert, and the whole town is infested with a visit from all of the dregs of creation, who come among us only to depredate and destroy.
>
> The prostitution of a grave college occasion by a dissolute populace appeals to one's sympathy; but unfortunately the town was not the only sinner. The gown was quite as guilty. In the early eighteenth century an act was passed for reforming the extravagances of commencement at Harvard. It provided that henceforth "no preparation or provision of either Plumb-cake, or Roasted, Boiled, or Baked Meates or Pyes of any kind should be made by the commencer" and prohibited any "distilled lyquours" under heavy fine. The overseers further recommended an act which seems strangely familiar to-day "to restrain unsuitable and unseasonable dancing in the college," and to prevent "the great disturbance occasioned by tumultuous and indecent noyses." Even to the officials, however, this legislation seemed too severe, so that it was formally rescinded a generation later by a resolution that the scholars might in a sober manner indulge in the drinking of punch. The officials could hardly do otherwise in a day when the college buttery, as one historian records, offered for sale to the students in general such articles as it was "proper and necessary for them to have occasionally," and catalogued the most important in the following order: wines; liquors; groceries; stationery. This permission of 1759 brought about perhaps a natural result in the records of Washington Allston, who, before he became an eminent painter, in his capacity of rhyming Secretary of the Hasty Pudding Club, recorded of the annual dinner in 1800:

> And each one to evince his spunk
> Vied with his neighbor to get drunk;
> Nor tedious was the mighty strife
> With these true-blooded blades of life,
> For less than hours two had gone
> When roaring mad was every one.

Even Phi Beta Kappa dinners were not immune from what it may be charitable to call elevation on the part of the annual diners.

What happened at commencement must have had relation to what happened throughout the rest of the year. This would be safe as a theory, but the melancholy facts make no theory necessary. The code of respectability was very different in the old days. The students robbed roosts by way of adventure and pillaged market gardens for the vulgar spoils that they could carry away. Nor did such pleasantries endanger their social status. By the days of the Revolution, and earlier, the exercise of corporal punishment had given way to a system of fines. One table in use at Harvard includes twenty-three items. Absences and tardinesses were paid for in pence, positive offences of conduct in shillings. Three items particularly appeal to the imagination. The cost of "going upon the top of the college" was one and sixpence; of drunkenness, not exceeding one and sixpence; of keeping guns and going skating, one shilling.

Student disorder, moreover, was not merely individual, but frequently organized. One of the greatest sources of discontent was in the conduct of the College Commons, and at various institutions successive protests

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at the fare, resulting in no material change, were followed by organized strikes which were sometimes unqualifiedly victorious, and always reduced the ruling officers to an extremely conciliatory state of mind. In fact, I am not sure but this is over-stating it, for there is certain evidence that the college authorities were never too belligerent in their attitude. I have it on the authority of an eminent philosopher, whose reverend father was a tutor at Yale after he graduated in 1837, that in his day every tutor was equipped with two complete sets of windows. This was not on account of danger from storm or earthquake, but in order to be ready for the friendly addresses of the undergraduates. Now and again, as the mood seized them, they would divide into squads, a part manning themselves with clubs at the entrance to a dormitory, and the rest, equipped with coal from the college pile, bombarding the windows of the younger faculty members. The custom was so well established that all knew the assailing forces would withdraw when the last pane was smashed. A second set of glazed windows was then put in place, and it only remained for the tutor to gather up the accessions to his coal pile thus informally delivered, and for the janitor, at the college expense, to reëquip the old windows and store them for use in the next emergency. So much for the good old days as recorded in history.

But literature, as well as formal history, has been dedicated to this subject. John Trumbull, Yale, A.B. 1767, A.M. 1770, wrote among his satires none that was more to the point than a work in three parts entitled "The Progress of Dulness." This about the achievements of Tom, Dick, and Harry—although Harry is transformed to Harriet Simper, who, after a varied career as a coquette, was first jilted by Dick Hairbrain, and finally doomed to an inglorious marriage with Tom Brainless. Our interest for the moment is in the boys. Tom, incapable of any other career, was sent by his fond parents to college, tutored in preparation, and pushed through his examinations by the combined zeal of father and teacher. A few days were enough to weary him of a routine which

> In the same round condemn'd each day
> To study, read, recite, and play.

A short programme of non-preparation, tardinesses, and absences made him subject to "the college evil,"

> Then ev'ry book, which out to please,
> Stirs up the seeds of dire disease;
> Greek spoils his eyes, the print's so fine
> Grown dim with study, or with wine;
> Of Tully's Latin much afraid,
> Each page, he calls the doctor's aid;
> While geometry, with lines so crooked,
> Sprains all his wits to overlook it.
> His sickness puts on every name,
> Its cause and uses still the same;
> 'Tis toothache, cholic, gout or stone,
> With phases various as the moon;
> But though through all the body spread,
> Still makes its cap'tal seat, the head.
> In all diseases, 'tis expected,
> The weakest parts be most infected.

In spite of all, however, he survived until after,

> Four years at college dozed away,
> In sleep and slothfulness and play . . .
> He passes trial fair and free
> And takes in form his first degree.

Of the college leopard's spots, however, Tom was one of the smaller ones, for Trumbull pointed out in terms of Dick's experience that college was not merely a place for the harmless incompetent. Young Hairbrain was quite aware of what a liberal education was to bring him, and on his arrival broke out in a rapturous salutation:

> All hail, unvex'd with care and strife,
> The bliss of academic life;
> Where kind repose protracts the span,
> Where childhood ripens into man;
> Where no hard parent's dreaded rage
> Curbs the gay sports of youthful age;
> Where no vile fear the genius awes
> With grim severity of laws;
> Where annual troops of bucks come down,
> The flower of every neigb'ring town;
> Where wealth and pride and riot wait,
> And each choice spirit finds his mate.

Trumbull was so eager to drive home his strictures upon the college that occasionally he interrupted his story for direct comment. He deplored the domination of the classics,

> Can knowledge never reach the brains
> Unless conveyed in ancient strains? . . .
> While half the learning but displays
> The follies of the former days.

Not only were the classics useless, but in his introduction he carried the war against most of the other subjects. Who could be confident that the following was not written in 1914 instead of 1770? "The mere knowledge of the ancient languages, of the abstruser parts of mathematics, and the dark researches of metaphysics is of little advantage in any business or profession of life." Not only so, but with reference to what we nowadays dignify by the title of extra-classroom activities, Dick Hairbrain's "constant course was retrograde."

> O'er Newton's system though he sleeps
> And finds his wits in dark eclipse!
> His talents proved of highest price
> At all the arts of cards and dice;
> His genius turn'd, with greatest skill
> To whist, loo, cribbage, and quadrille,
> And taught, to every rival's shame,
> Each nice distinction of the game.

With an indictment which rejects the collegian's studies as useless and his diversions as pernicious, Trumbull seems to have compassed a fairly thorough piece of criticism. As we think back to the traditions of education in the East, we no longer marvel at the annual and solemn celebration of a day of prayer for colleges.

All this detail is not as confusing as it seems at first glance. The two sets of facts beneath it are not really at variance. The extraordinary eruptions of student disorder arose from the failure of old-fashioned college governments to reckon with the problems of exercise and recreation. Smashing and fighting were forms of athletics. College pranks and debating societies were equally pathetic attempts at friendly play. If there is any lesson which the present generation seems consciously to be applying, it is that the damming up of natural forces is dangerous business. In the neglect of this principle the old colleges were, to use the words of the clever and self-confident investigator, "unnecessarily deficient in pedagogical intelligence." But the other half of his indictment—however true it may be to-day—does not seem to have held good even of John Trumbull's Yale. In spite of an occasional Hairbrain or Brainless, the old college students were not "*for the most part* flighty and superficial," or "lacking *as a class* seriousness and thoroughness." For the old college expected faithful intellectual work, and in the main exacted it, and the students went to college expecting to use their memories and their minds, and pursued their studies as vocational students preparing for the learned professions.

III.

There is always food for reflection in a comparison of old times and new, and quite as much as usual apropos of the college.

We may as well admit at the outset that in the modern situation there is no new element. There have always been flightiness and superficiality in college as well as seriousness and concentration. The distinction between one generation and another is a matter of proportion in part. In part, it is a question of significance, for every social institution to be seen clearly must be seen against its own contemporary background. A matter of indifference at one time may be a source of discredit a decade later. It is no adequate defence, then, of to-day to say that colleges have always had to contend with a shoddy and frivolous element. And in the modern college it is impossible to gainsay that the shoddy and superficial are no insignificant minority.

Let us concede again. It is not easy to be sure of the inner character of a widely scattered student body. It is not easy to be sure of a single collegeful—to use a small unit of measure. The observer may have his doubts even of a single club or fraternity. He may be mistaken in a lone individual. Perfectly clear external facts may be quite misleading. Seriousness does not always wear its heart upon its sleeve. Concentration and thoroughness are not always indexed by casual conversation. Yet, with reasonable care, a safe interpretation may be put on the facts. Students yield to observation, and students indulge in observation on their own situation which is of the highest significance.

To draw a comparison, then, first with reference to the play idea, it is quite clear that this generation has completely discredited the ill-timed asceticism of early scholarship. It is no longer considered admirable to mortify the flesh. Even the scholar owes an apology to himself and his family and his students if he permits himself to be "sicklied o'er." The Horatian concept of a sound mind in a sound body has

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become so popularized that we have made a fetish of sport. The valedictorian is overshadowed in the eyes of his fellows by the least of the college athletes. Phi Beta Kappa takes what is overlooked by the eleven and the nine and the eight and the five and the track team and the tennis squad and the golf and hockey and cross country and bowling and swimming and indoor gymnastics, and only the director of physical culture knows what other teams. To paraphrase Lowell in his essay on Thoreau: "Every possible form of intellectual and physical diversion has brought forth its gospel. Chess has its prophets, and the presartorial simplicity of the water-polo team its martyrs. Undergraduate debating has been carried to a pitch that would take away the breath of William J. Bryan. . . . Everybody is devoted to a student activity with a capital *A*, which demands attention to everything but study." Of course, it is now some years since President Wilson called attention to this dislocation of emphasis, and the results are already gratifyingly apparent and auspicious, one hopes, of further reform of the sort. It was necessary, I suppose, that after the mistakes of many college generations towards too great repression of the student, the pendulum when first released should have swung far beyond the perpendicular.

IV.

With reference to the other chief fact of the "good old days," the assumption that the student went to college to study has been steadily maintained in all institutions of higher learning in which it is now the fact, as it used to be in the New England college, that students are preparing for definite careers. In law and divinity schools, the old attitude has been maintained without interruption. Those who have been derisively called "pluggers" in the college keep on plugging, and those who have hitherto derided forthwith learn how to "plug," to their soul's good. So also in the medical schools, the most genial and accomplished loafers undergo miraculous transformations when they sniff the pungent atmosphere which pervades and surrounds the medical laboratory. Possibly because of the presence of advanced scientific students in physics and chemistry, there is a general devotion to these subjects (which, of course, have only recently been introduced into the curriculum) that is lacking among the students of arts and literature. In the newer agricultural and engineering schools, no one dreams of thinking that the students can profitably use a wide margin of time for miscellaneous purposes. Even in graduate schools, which carry on the old subjects of the classics, literature, philosophy, mathematics, the vocational concept makes a worker out of the veriest undergraduate drone.

Yet this vocational concept should be mentioned with caution, for it is easy to juggle it to no good purpose. It is a concept which is vaguely entertained by the student and really apprehended by the faculty. The young professional student when he enters the portals of his graduate school is not immediately recompounded into seven-eighths conscience and the rest remorse. He does his best not because he is prudent—foresighted—but because he will be dropped if he loafs. He sees a connection, to be sure, between his different courses and the profession he expects to enter. He is not baffled by the idea of cultural courses, or wearied by the routine of disciplinary studies. It is easy for him to justify the ways of the god in the machine. All this is negatively calculated to make him contented by removing some of the natural grounds for discontent; but it does not make him industrious. He works rather because he is expected to and because all the other men are working, and they work because he is working, and because it is the tradition of a selected body of students all of whom are actuated by a common motive and willingly subject to common requirements.

It is at this point that the twentieth-century college is most strongly in contrast with both the eighteenth-century college and the vocational school of to-day. This college, whether it is the undergraduate department of a university or a cosey little up-country institution, seldom enjoys its own specially selected constituency. Instead it is a general catch-all. Too many undergraduate bodies are made up like the tag-end of the domestic household introduced into "The Admirable Crichton." When the servants were marshalled in, and announced by the incomparable butler, the last half dozen, defying all description, were lamely summarized with a deprecating smile as "odds and ends." Every self-respecting college enrolls, of course, a considerable number of honest self-respecting students, but every one of them includes also a lot of academic odds and ends who would never dream of enrolling in vocational schools which demand work and demand the ability to perform it. Thus the college in one of its functions becomes an asylum for amiable youths whose chief motive for registering is to postpone for a few more years their entrance into the paternal business, or serves as an ante-chamber to the ballroom and the opera house for favored daughters who know too much to stay in high school, but are not ready to come out in society. This is unfortunate, for there are plenty of expensive academies and finishing schools to take care of the expensively inclined. To students and parents whose purses are not over long, wintering in the colleges ought not to seem any more practicable than putting in the time at Florida or Bad Nauheim or the Riviera. If "atmosphere" is what is wanted, it ought to be much more salubrious on the Gulf Coast or the Mediterranean than within the quadrangles of our colleges.

For within the colleges, granting that exercise and play have their legitimate place, there is need of the same exaction of work as there used to be in the colleges and as there is now in the professional and technical schools. Faculties need to be more urgently devoted to stimulating mental effort, more fully committed to the practice of rejecting from their zone of influence the loafer and the dilettante; and students need to be regarded as students, and either made to become such or be escorted to the gates of the campus and bidden godspeed in pursuit of some other more appropriate avocation. The tendency of the present day is in this direction, and every step which has been taken has demonstrated in most unqualified ways that the instructor who demands the most, the college which is least indulgent, the entrance requirements which are most exacting, are always regarded as challengers to the public, are always respected for the stimulation which they offer, and are always sought by those students who themselves are most worth seeking. There is no more question now than there was in 1814 that there is an enormous amount of student energy eager to be turned to account.

Much student energy which is ready to be converted into work is yet only humanly natural in being equally ready to run to waste if conditions permit. Boys who are willing to dry-rot in lazy inactivity, in most cases will get to work with plenty of vigor if only they feel the pressure of circumstances. And always the boys who have any stuff in them enjoy the swimming better when the surf is high. The thing works negatively as well as positively. There is not one in fifty who will not be a little deprecatory in registering for a "snap" course, even though as between dean and student the pleasant pretence is maintained that there are no "snaps"; and instructors in elective subjects may be as urgent as they will, if only they are reputed to be fair and sympathetic, without endangering the size of their classes.

Students will groan, of course, under the burden of work. Who will not? But the noise they make is chiefly vocal. The college boy may play the fool now and then, but in the classroom he demands to be taken seriously. The dogmatic or unreasonable instructor will stir his indignation, but the giver of "cinch" courses elicits his contempt. Here, for example, are some sentences recently published in a college daily:

> All the definite significance of a [Ph.B] degree is this—it certifies to the fact that the recipient has been in residence four years. . . . Students are able to "get by," and win this recognition with little or no serious work, in spite of efforts on the part of the University to compel more serious work. . . . What should it mean? . . . . Recipients would thus be confined to those who could apply their college education to the production of a really decent scholastic effort.

This is in the West; and in the East another student is in a typical dilemma, protesting at the amount of work demanded, "putting up an awful sob" (in student parlance) because the ones "who get the highest marks are all the biggest prunes,"

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and in the same moment deciding not to change alma maters because —— "has a higher standard for work than almost any other college."

There are letters at hand as interesting as any that Stephen Salisbury wrote as a freshman a hundred years ago, but, unfortunately, it is too early to publish them. What they reveal, and what scores of other student reactions reveal, brings us back to the opening quotation from the clever investigator. In the college of to-day there are no small number of "flighty, superficial, and immature" students. Yet some of the flightiest would willingly come down to earth if they only knew what to do when they alighted. When they know what kind of work is expected of them and what will happen if they neglect it or bungle it, a great many students will be scared away from college as they are now fended off from the vocational schools, and most of the remainder will settle down intelligently to the tasks that confront them.

REVIEWS

AN EXAMINATION OF THE TEXTBOOKS PUBLISHED SINCE LAST SPRING.

EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

Amidst the waste of formal pedagogical literature it is refreshing to find a document so human and genial as C. Hanford Henderson's "What Is It to Be Educated?" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50). It matters little whether we agree with him. His book bears the mark of a wide experience, both in and out of school, which he seems to have kept fresh and vivid, with the result that there is hardly a page which is not good reading, though a few pages are somewhat remote from his subject, and there is a little more of Oriental philosophy and Tolstoyan radicalism than most of us will care to swallow.

Instead of outlining a formal theory of education, Mr. Henderson undertakes to give us a concrete picture of the educated man. First in importance he rates bodily health, decent habits, and good manners. But behind it all lies the idea of producing a "human thoroughbred." Until a boy is fourteen, it makes little difference whether he can read —although, as the author admits, almost any intelligent boy, brought up among intelligent people, will insist upon learning. At this period the important thing is a training in the arts, in the broadest sense: the art of controlling his body, of swimming, of riding, the arts of music and of drawing, the industrial and household arts—to make him independent of the personal services of others —and the art of using tools; but not the contemptible art of "athletics," nor the formal "manual training" of the usual sort. From fourteen to seventeen comes the high school, which is to be devoted to the serious pursuit of intellectual culture and scholarship. The typical high school of the present, with its "adolescent distractions," is "the premature destroyer of childhood." At seventeen comes the *Wanderjahr*, preferably a trip around the world for those who can afford it, but in any case, if possible, a change of scene—for example, for the Western boy a year in the East. And then, for the relatively few who seem to be called, the college.

There is much in this Platonic scheme which calls for discussion. But there is one note that commands special attention. Amidst all the talk of what education is *for*, it is rather pleasant to hear that the first motive of education should be "immediacy." In other words, a boy is to be educated "for" himself. Education is nothing less than the process of "personal salvation," not a means but an end. "I do not want to make him [the high-school boy] a docile citizen, or a smug shopkeeper, or an incipient artisan, or a walking encyclopædia, or an expert linguist, or, for that matter, any other special creature. I insist quite frankly upon the higher claims of human graciousness and charm. If our three-year high-school course makes the lad more interesting, more lovable, more resourceful, more of a person (as our expressive phrase has it), then the process is commendable education."

It is a little hard to account for all the fuss that has been made over the Montessori method. Most informed readers of the "Method" must feel that, while the author is a clever and ingenious woman, her science is rather thin, and her consciousness of originality is due to imperfect information regarding the educational developments, not only of the past, but of the present. In a thoughtful and well-written little book, "From Locke to Montessori" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.25 net), William Boyd, lecturer at Glasgow, subjects her system to a scholarly criticism. His tone is sober and courteous, with only a touch of irony here and there, but there is little left of Montessori at the end. In "the individuality of the pupil" she adds little to either Locke or Rousseau. Her conceptions both of individuality and of freedom are incoherent, and in her schools "the freedom of the child" is largely fictitious. As a matter of fact, her scientific prepossessions and her lack of imagination, as shown in her exaggeration of the need of sense-training and her contempt for stories, plays, and games, really prevent her from understanding the child's point of view.

One would wish to emphasize by a lengthy review the importance of "The Montessori System Examined" (Houghton Mifflin; 35 cents net), by William Heard Kilpatrick; but the book is so short—67 pages—and the author's treatment of the subject so clear and concise that it seems better to recommend it without reserve to the attention of all teachers, rather than to attempt an analysis of its contents. One feels especially justified in this course because the very low price of the book places it within the reach of all. Dr. Kilpatrick is fully acquainted with the history of pedagogical development, and thoroughly conversant with the psychological basis of educational theory, and the modern critical studies founded upon it. He has made a careful study of Dr. Montessori's theory, and of her practice at first hand; and in this book attempts to show wherein these differ from those of the kindergarten system which they would aim to displace, as well as from the pedagogical principles upheld by his colleague and master, Prof. John Dewey. His mode of procedure enables him to present in a clear light the weaknesses, as well as the strong points, of both the new system and of the older system of Fröbel as it has been developed by his disciples. He gives to Dr. Montessori full credit for her scientific aims, and for some of her practice, especially as it is carried out in Italy at the *Casa dei Bambini*. But he does not spare critical judgment where it appears warranted; and his attitude is so thoroughly judicial throughout that one feels confidence in the conclusions he draws.

English readers who wish to be enlightened regarding the theory and practice of vocational education will be grateful for the translation by C. K. Ogden of the volume of addresses entitled "The School and the Nation" (Macmillan; $1.60), by Georg Kerschensteiner, director of the Munich schools. Dr. Kerschensteiner, who more than any other is responsible for the present vocational movement, is everywhere interesting because all that he has to say rests upon a background of experience and reflection; and the present volume, though a collection of scattered lectures, gives a clear account of the history of the Munich continuation schools and of the ideals underlying them, while the appendices supply the details. One idea underlies all, namely, that education—or, at least, the education of the masses—is to be guided wholly by the place of the individual in the economy of the nation. The individual is wholly and simply the citizen. From this point of view a "general" education, for purposes of personal culture, is meaningless. At any rate, the general education—which, in the end, is by no means despised—must seek its justification in the broader needs of the special vocation, which is to serve as its foundation; in the traditional view this order is reversed. Nothing could be more satisfactory than this exposition of the logic of vocationalism. It is clearly the logic of the social system in Germany. How far it will harmonize with ideas and institutions in the United States is open to question.

The eight educational addresses published under the title of the first of them, "Education and the New Utilitarianism" (Longmans; $1.20), by Alexander Darroch, professor at Edinburgh, are, on the whole, instructive reading, though not specially striking. Most suggestive are the author's comments upon the outcome of public education, regarded as "education for democracy." While an extension of the range of studies has been unavoidable, the modern curriculum issues in an "aimless variety" which fails to provide the discipline that even a democracy needs, if men are to work together. Nor are the ends of democracy promoted by a system of which the chief purpose and recommendation are that it enables a child to pass from his own social class to a higher one. On the other hand, owing to a mistaken notion of "equality," public education tends to disregard individual fitness. At the same time, it diminishes the sense of responsibility of the parent. And in the end there is a striking disproportion between the magnitude of our organization of education and the number of really educated persons.

In a little book entitled "A Path to Freedom in the School," which is at least stimulating (Macmillan; 60 cents), Norman MacMunn, of King Edward VI School, Stratford-on-Avon, tells of his success with the ideas of freedom and partnership. Doubtless. Perhaps we may say that every teacher who is alive and responsible is entitled to his own method. But

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when he tells us that "'I think it would be good fun to do this' is a frequent prelude of mine, and it very rarely excites anything but an enthusiastic response," we are obliged to wonder—about the strenuousness of the "work," or the honesty of the boys (we assume that the teacher is sincere), or their intelligence.

Among the educational works calling for briefer mention are the following:

"The Modern High School: Its Administration and Extension" (Scribner; $1.75) is a rather bulky volume, the thirty chapters of which are written by the editor, Charles Hughes Johnston, of the University of Illinois, and some twenty-five others. The present volume is the second of a series of three, and is devoted to "the strictly socializing work" of the high school. One gets the impression that the high school is being "socialized" to death, but many chapters of the book are informing, though—since the book is to serve as a text for a pedagogical seminary—few are inspiring.

In "Dr. Montessori's Own Handbook" (Frederick A. Stokes Company; $1 net), Maria Montessori warns us, over her autographed signature, to beware of imitations and accept this as "the only authentic manual of the Montessori Method."

"The Thinking Hand" (Macmillan; $2.25 net), by J. C. Legge, Director of Education in Liverpool, contains more than a hundred pages of interesting photographs showing what is being done in the way of "practical" (*i. e.*, manual) education in the Liverpool elementary schools. The text is brightly written, but is mainly an introduction to the illustrations. The appendices contain much relevant information.

"Steps Towards Educational Reform" (G. P. Putnam's Sons), by another Liverpool teacher, C. W. Bailey, will be of interest as reflecting the liberal attitude towards educational needs in England.

A more conservative note is sounded in a volume, which is none the less good reading, by the headmaster of Eton, Edward Lyttelton, entitled "The Corner-Stone of Education" (Putnam; $1.50 net). Dr. Lyttelton stands for the old-fashoined view that the corner-stone of education is home training and respect for parents, which implies, as he believes, a Christian home.

On the other hand, the trend of liberalism in India is illustrated by "Introduction to the Science of Education," by Benoy Kumar Sarkar, of the National Council of Education, Bengal (Longmans; $1.10), which offers the plan and promise of a larger work to contain a complete system of education based upon the inductive method. The "inductive method" is an old story to Western ears, and not yet an absolute success, but to Mr. Sarkar it promises complete salvation.

"Physical Training (Junior Course), Swedish Exercises, Games, Swimming, Diving, Life-Saving," by E. John Solano, and "Physical Training" (Senior Course), by the same author (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; 75 cents net each) give simple though somewhat meagre instructions which, while designed for the "use of adults of both sexes, . . . without special training in the subjects," are obviously adapted chiefly to furnish suggestions for the guidance of teachers of classes in physical training.

Those who are interested in what Fisher has called the "conservation of national vitality," and particularly in that phase of the movement which seeks to apply the principles of modern hygiene and preventive medicine to the conduct of family and institutional life, will find "Health and the Schools—A Round-Table" (Appleton; $1.50 net), by Frances W. and Jesse D. Burks, informing and suggestive. Indeed, the indirect evidence furnished in its pages by the references and bibliography is impressive in regard to the extent to which this propaganda is permeating the management of our schools and other public institutions. We may congratulate ourselves upon these signs of an awakening consciousness on the part of the community in regard to its hygienic obligations, for in spite of a tendency to overdo matters and to adopt hastily what may prove to be passing fads, the movement is in the right direction. In this book the subject is developed in the form of round-table conferences, a mode of presentation which to some of us is uninteresting or even irritating. The reader can scarcely avoid the impression that the round-table method of discussion is a pretence—men of straw are demolished with a facility that bears but little resemblance to the stubborn conflicts of actual controversy. The author endeavors to support the general thesis that the "enforcement of health" is a duty of the community, and especially of its governing bodies, as important and as feasible as the recognized obligation of the "enforcement of learning," and no one can find fault with the general principle as thus stated. The only criticism that arises perhaps is in regard to the manner in which these principles shall be advocated and effected. It must be admitted that the earnest promoters of many of our social reforms show a regrettable tendency towards exaggeration, as regards both the evils of the present system and the outcome of perfection to be expected under a new order of things. Dire predictions are founded on selected instances of awful examples, and sweeping generalizations upon very meagre statistics.

This book may be criticised, also, but in no unkindly spirit, for the completeness of the reforms that it advocates. The conscientious reader is likely to be confused by the multitude of duties thrust upon him, and the serious-minded parent, although he may be convicted of his sins, especially his sins of omission, will be overwhelmed and disheartened by the number of details and the amount of information that he must master, if he hopes to protect his offspring successfully from all the dangers to health and efficiency that threaten the human organism from within and without. The preservation of perfect health cannot, of course, be guaranteed by the science of hygiene. Even if we were entirely amenable to control, after the manner of the plants and lower animals, hygienic knowledge is still too incomplete in many directions to be applied with any certainty of success. It may be said, indeed, that so-called rules of health, even if they fail in their purpose, can do no positive harm, but it would be better if in popular presentations a clearer distinction were made between facts and fancies. If we take books of this kind as guides for practical conduct, the use for which they are designed, the criticism may be made that they often fail to differentiate between the certain knowledge of science and the various more or less ill-founded opinions of scientists which are still under discussion. One may speak with confidence of the value of vaccination in small-pox or of the use of antitoxin in diphtheria, and may lay down simple rules to follow. But in the matter of individual nutrition, for example, the use of meats, the value of cane sugar versus fruit sugar, and other details of the daily diet, one may make suggestions, good, bad, and indifferent, but these suggestions ought not to go to the layman as the accepted findings of science.

"The Mental Health of the School Child" (Yale University Press; $2 net), by J. E. Wallace Wallin, is described by its author in his sub-title as a series of "Contributions to a new science of orthophrenics and orthosomatics." A new science should patiently await the gathering of data, the discrimination of data thus gathered, and the perfecting of methods of classification of these data and of modes of deduction from them, before asserting that it has discoveerd general principles, or attempting to apply these hypothetic principles. The book before us furnishes complete evidence that this preliminary work has not yet been accomplished, and that the votaries of the "new science" should not be encouraged to induce the public to spend large sums in the application of the methods suggested by the author, and others of his group, until this tentative stage has been passed. Workers in this field too often overlook the fact that the human organism is a system of coördinated minor systems, which latter seldom if ever develop coördinately. This is clearly evidenced in the bodily, as well as in the mental, growth of the child. Some minor systems grow faster than others for a time, and then delay their development until the others catch up with them. What thus appear as abnormalities at one period of growth may entirely disappear as such at a later period, and in general do thus disappear. Nature is on the whole self-corrective in this particular. This fact should lead the investigator of the problems here considered to greater caution than is usually observed in the application of the principles which he thinks he has established. Most of the difficulties which our author finds in the application of eugenics (pp. 264 ff) apply as fully to the new science of which he is so enthusiastic a devotee. That some splendid work in this direction has been done, with thorough scientific caution, by such men as Witmer, is not to be denied; but men of this type are difficult to find, as our author himself shows (p. 114 ff); and it would seem the part of wisdom to avoid attempts to press upon the public the application of the "new science" on a broad scale, as our author does, until its principles and methods are firmly established by patient labor. In such matters we should remember that we are experimenting, and that we are experimenting with human beings; a procedure which should not be undertaken without a grave sense of responsibility.

ENGLISH.

COMPOSITION.

Acquiring an education must be a pleasant business in these days. The appeal is so artfully directed to the immediate interests of the student, the educational wares are so tastefully displayed, that nothing short of invincible ignorance could fail to be delightfully enticed along the "rue royale" to learning. But why not? The doctrine of winning folk to heaven by "fairnesse" needs no defence.

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At the moment "oral" English is all the cry. In "Oral Composition" (Macmillan; $1), Cornelia Carhart Ward has more to offer that is both fresh and useful than can be found in many books of similar title. Her object is to develop the ability to speak informingly and readily. It does not at all detract from the merit of the book that it keeps the traditional divisions of exposition, description, narration, and argumentation; the intention of extemporaneous discourse is never lost sight of. This portion of the book, with its fertile suggestions for practice and its skilful use of models drawn from the speeches almost of the hour, offers a more solid contribution than the earlier pages on phonetics and the history of the language. In a brightly written little volume, "The Teaching of Oral English" (J. B. Lippincott Company), Emma Miller Bolenius tells what she has accomplished with boys and girls, by means of "one-minute talks." Teachers will find it packed with suggestions and directions, and, as we began by saying, it must be fun to be the pupil. Incidentally, Quintilian would stare and gasp at the realization of how much he has to contribute to this very modern subject.

Prof. Robert Huntington Fletcher's "Principles of Composition and Literature" (A. S. Barnes) also falls into two parts. They are of very uneven length, and, apparently, value. The first is a brief treatment of the elements of the conventional rhetoric. Part II is a substantial volume of more than 350 pages which begins boldly with a definition of literature, passes on through an analysis of the emotions, defines Classicism and Romanticism and kindred terms, quails not before the question "What is poetry?", and is patient with details of phonetics and metre. The result is a closely packed and really useful contribution to one of the *desiderata*—an encyclopædia of literary studies.

Tobias O. Chew's "Practical High School Speller" (Allyn & Bacon; 40 cents) is compiled on the basis of many thousand replies from high school teachers to the request for lists of words most commonly misspelled by their pupils. "Separate" leads all the rest, and nearly last, but surely not least, is "Macaulay." "Disappoint" and "occasion" occupy high place. Each word appears first in script, to aid the student's visualization, and again in bold type as part of a brief phrase, with syllables and stresses indicated. A page of convenient rules and an index complete this decidedly useful little volume. The two books of "Daily English Lessons" (J. B. Lippincott), by Prof. Willis H. Wilcox, supply a lesson for each and every day of the five years preceding high school. The work is carefully and fully laid out so that the teacher of limited training or opportunity will find all things needful between the covers. The uniform grammatical nomenclature adopted by the National Education Association last year is employed.

LITERARY HISTORY.

In his "American Literature" (Richmond: B. F. Johnson Publishing Co.), Prof. John Calvin Metcalf succeeds in his very manifest desire to be fair to all sides. Naturally, a good deal of space is devoted to Southern writers from Poe to O. Henry and Henry Sydnor Harrison, but the author's treatment of them is strikingly temperate, just as that of the New England group fails neither in scope nor in sympathy. Without rising to independence of judgment or brilliance of presentation the book serves as a good guide to sober, established critical opinion and well-attested fact.

Prof. Charles Sears Baldwin's "English Medieval Literature" (Longmans; $1.25) is avowedly an "Introduction," designed not to enlighten the scholar, but to gain appreciative readers for our pre-Elizabethan literature. It should succeed in this purpose, for it need hardly be said that Professor Baldwin writes well; quotations, too—and this is an essential part of his method—he presents skilfully and at length. The convenience of having in a single volume a conspectus of both Anglo-Saxon and Middle English literature is apparent. The ballads, the beginnings of the drama, and the background afforded by the mediæval church are not neglected, and a usually slighted writer, Walter Map, receives fresh and extended treatment. The book invitingly points the way to the exploration of the rapidly accumulating mass of mediæval literature in translation.

ANTHOLOGIES.

Several different methods of compiling anthologies are to be noted. There is, first, the frankly simple chronological method of Percy Lubbock's "A Book of English Prose" (Cambridge University Press; 3s. 6d. net), which offers from two to four pages each under most of the great names from Malory to Stevenson. Of the two slender volumes Part I is arranged for preparatory and elementary schools, and Part II, which covers much the same ground but is rather "harder reading," is designed for secondary and high schools.

Another method is to group the selections so as to illustrate the technical aspects of the literary art. This Prof. Carroll Lewis Maxcy has done in his "Representative Narratives" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50). "Setting," for example, is studied in selections, prefaced in each case with a brief analysis, from Poe, Frank Norris, Guy de Maupassant, and Lafcadio Hearn. In a similar manner characterization and plot are studied, with not a little attention to dialogue. The collection closes with three examples, Balzac's "La Grande Bretèche," Hawthorne's "The Birthmark," and Arthur Morrison's "On the Stairs," which in the editor's opinion illustrate nearly all the "points" of the short story.

Modernity is the lure which is held out to the wayward attention of the high school student in Margaret Ashmun's "Modern Prose and Poetry for Secondary Schools" (Houghton Mifflin; 85 cents). Hopkinson Smith, Aldrich, Stedman, Mary Johnston, Mary Antin, Howells, James, William Vaughan Moody, and many others are presented in brief but happily chosen extracts, embroidered with annotations, exercises, and collateral readings. By the side of this Prof. Waitman Barbe's "Great Poems Interpreted" (Hinds, Noble & Eldredge; $1.25), which, like the author's "Famous Poems Explained," sets twoscore gems of literature in a silver sea of commentary, seems almost old-fashioned. But all the poems chosen are worth study and the information provided is usually to the point. "Lippincott's Fifth Reader" ($1.50), which is compiled by Homer P. and Elizabeth Lewis, is vastly more literary than earlier avatars. The authors represented, both in prose and verse, are of the highest quality. Happy the child that comes into living contact with them. But of such a book as this, with its brief and, as they stand, rather difficult selections, the success depends on its falling into the hands of a capable teacher.

For the Macmillan Pocket Classics Dr. Claude M. Fuess has gathered into a volume a hundred or so very brief "Selections for Oral Reading" (25 cents), drawn from the Bible, Homer, Demosthenes, Cicero, and a host of moderns. It is prefaced with a few remarks on what one of its masters used to call the obsolescent art of reading aloud. Prof. Victor Alvin Ketcham's "Theory and Practice of Argumentation and Debate" (Macmillan; $1), is of a more formal sort. The practice is treated first, and clear and precise directions are given covering all stages of the debate, from the framing of the question and the collection of evidence to the final delivery of the argument. Most frequently referred to as models are the Lincoln-Douglas debates. The appendices contain among other things specimen agreements for debating leagues. The second part of the book—the theory—is an elementary treatise on logic.

HISTORICAL GRAMMAR.

Nearly fifteen years have elapsed since the publication of Kaluza's "Historische Grammatik," the last comprehensive work on English historical grammar, and in the interval active investigation has been carried on in the field. While no such striking advance is to be recorded as during the decades when Child made his study of the language of Chaucer or when Sievers produced his grammar of Anglo-Saxon, nevertheless the boundaries of knowledge have been steadily extended, and the scholars of the last few years have not been without new methods and points of view. The number of investigators occupied with the subject has probably been greater than ever before, and the mere mass of their productions makes the publication of a *zusammenfassende Arbeit* highly desirable. Prof. Karl Luick, whose part in the advancement of the science has not been small, might be expected to give a thoroughly competent survey of the state of knowledge and to add something of his own to the common stock, and the first instalment of his work, "Historische Grammatik der Englischen Sprache," Erster Band, erste Lieferung (Lemcke & Buechner; $1), indicates that the expectation will be fulfilled. There is an element of novelty in his general theory, or at least in his mode of presentation. He criticises previous writers for having given simply schematic accounts of the grammar of different periods—of Anglo-Saxon, Chaucerian English, modern English, and the like—and for not having sufficiently described the continuous development of sounds or formations. They have presented the subject, he declares, only in cross sections (*Querstriche*), and it is his purpose to show the vertical sections, to lay stress upon chronology and the processes of change, in short, to write a properly historical grammar. In the brief beginning of *Lautgeschichte* contained in the first *Lieferung*, the method thus described is carried out very satisfactorily, and this new organization of the material of English grammar cannot fail to be of value to all students of the subject. It should be added that the same historical purpose is served, and general intelligibility greatly promoted, by the way in which Professor Luick constantly supplies phonetic explanation for phonological changes.

Of grammar, in the strict sense, however, there is very little in the part of the book

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thus far published. Most of the space is taken up with the introduction, which deals with what the author calls the "äussere Geschichte" of the language—the general history of the component dialects and of the foreign elements that have entered into the vocabulary. As a whole, the introductory chapters are excellent, and some subjects (such, for example, as palæography and orthography, dialectology, and the origin of the literary language) are much more fully and serviceably discussed than in previous grammars. In other places too much has been sacrificed to brevity, and opinions which are at least dubious have been set down without necessary qualifications. Thus the account of the Saxon conquest ignores difference of opinion as to the date; the discussion of the Romanization of Britain takes no account of Haverfield's important arguments from archæology; the passage on the Celtic element in English dismisses too briefly the general Germanic loans and does not distinguish sufficiently between the two branches, Goidelic and Brythonic, of the insular Celts. In spite of omissions, however, and perhaps of occasional errors of judgment, Professor Luick's compact introduction of less than a hundred pages is one of the best sources of information on the history of the language.

SELECTED TEXTS.

Among new texts for the classroom may be noted "Selected Idylls of the King," three of them, discriminatingly edited by Prof. Franklin T. Baker for the Riverside Literature series (Houghton Mifflin; 25 cents). Among Merrill's English Texts (Charles E. Merrill Co.; 40 cents) have appeared Mrs. Gaskell's "Cranford," edited by Helen Elizabeth Davis, and "Selected Short Stories," the choice of Dr. Claude M. Fuess. Professor Neilson's editions of "The Tempest" and "Romeo and Juliet" bring to nine the Shakespearean plays which he has edited for the Lake English Classics (Scott Foresman; 25 cents). In the same series are now available "Tom Brown's School Days" (35 cents), edited by A. B. de Mille, and Stevenson's "Kidnapped," by Arthur Willis Leonard, and "Addison and Steele, selections from the Tatler and Spectator," by Herbert Vaughan Abbott. For Holt's English Readings Professor Lowes has prepared an attractive edition of "Hamlet."

MODERN LANGUAGES.

FRENCH.

Far above the usual run of French college texts in quality of editorship is Prof. C. H. C. Wright's "Selections from Montaigne" (Heath; 90 cents). Nine representative essays, a few of which are given in extracts, admirably fulfil the editor's expressed purpose of furnishing an introduction to Montaigne's thought. Copious and judicious notes are provided, and to each essay is prefixed an excellent critical introduction. This valuable part of the work, we are interested to learn from the editor, is largely due to a recognized authority on Montaigne, Miss Grace Norton, a sister of the late Prof. C. E. Norton. To students of sixteenth-century French literature, this little volume will be most welcome.

Another textbook of sixteenth-century French which will appeal to advanced students is "Pages Choisies de Calvin," edited by Professor Jordan, of Columbia (Heath; 90 cents). About ninety pages are given, which include portions of the "Institution Chrétienne," the preface to the commentaries on the Psalms, several dedicatory epistles, and eight letters—a selection well exemplifying Calvin's powerful style. The editor presupposes a knowledge of modern French. The introduction, dealing with the life, influence, and language of Calvin, is in French, as are the notes and the explanations of obsolete words.

A new edition of Racine's "Andromaque" has appeared, this time edited by Professor Searles, of Stanford University, and published by Ginn & Co. (40 cents). There is a well-written introduction; much care has evidently been given to the unusually full notes, and a vocabulary is provided.

The latest anthology of modern French poetry, "Les Poètes Français du XIXe Siècle," edited by A. Auzas for the Oxford University Press (3s. 6d.), is noteworthy for the good judgment shown in selecting the material from the twenty-two poets represented, as also for the sound scholarship of the editorial work, which comprises a summary of the principles of French versification illustrated by abundant examples, brief notices of each author, notes on the texts, lists of questions for test purposes, and bibliographies. Following the custom established in England among editors of such textbooks, the *apparatus criticus* is entirely in French.

GERMAN.

Francis A. Wood's translation (University of Chicago Press; 20 cents net) of the "Hildebrandslied" into English alliterative verse and of a late Middle High German version of the same story in the rhymed stanza of the original gives the sense and spirit, and some of the effects of form. A few archaic words and phrases are used, but in the main the English is quite normal, so that the reader's mind is not much diverted to thoughts of artifice.

"An Outline of German Romanticism," by A. W. Porterfield (Ginn; $1 net), is a compendious bibliographical manual in two parts, the first dealing mainly with various groups of writers of literature, the second dealing mainly with the writers of treatises on the aforesaid literature. The second part, however, includes, besides some definitions and general considerations, data concerning scholars, philosophers, musicians, and painters who belong, one would think, more properly with the poets and prose writers of the first part. The final chapter makes suggestions for an introductory college course on the subject. Dr. Porterfield professes to have compiled rather than to have composed his volume. The merit of accuracy in the handling of multifarious details will hardly be denied him. But the grouping of these details leaves a good deal to be desired. There is no more reason why Uhland and Chamisso should be associated with the writers of the Heidelberg group than Fouqué, whose place is among the "side lights"—a galaxy so various as to include Kleist, Heine, Platen, and Mörike. Nor does there appear to be any reason for the conception of the romantic movement as a five-act drama, other than the desire for rhetorical composition The volume is, indeed, very much composed, in this sense. Obstreperous epithets, antitheses, parallelisms, paradoxes, and metaphors constantly distract attention from the substance to the form. The book may have its uses as a work of reference, hardly as a guide; and it would be more useful if it contained less.

"Easy German Conversation," by P. S. Allen and P. H. Phillipson (Holt; 90 cents), admirably succeeds in giving the aspect of easiness to a difficult art. The book is replete with good humor and sound sense.

G. O. Curme's "First German Grammar" (Oxford University Press; 90 cents net) places special emphasis upon pronunciation, use of the spoken language, and thorough drill in formal grammar. Transcriptions in the international phonetic alphabet and the systematic marking of accent and quantity of vowels are commendable features. The development of power to read German accurately being the author's prime object, the book is skilfully made to combine the functions of grammar and reader. It is compactly printed.

P. V. Bacon's "Elements of German" (Allyn & Bacon; $1) is a series of lessons followed by a summary of inflections and excellent chapters on pronunciation, word formation, and a brief presentation of Grimm's Law. In general appearance the book is very inviting.

THE CLASSICS.

Of the three volumes which form the latest addition to the Loeb Classical Library (Macmillan), one is a continuation and completion of a work already noticed in these columns—Prof. J. C. Rolfe's Suetonius. The present, second, volume contains the concluding "Lives of the Cæsars" and the fragmentary "Lives of Illustrious Men." A full index adds largely to the value of the book; and, indeed, it is fair to say that the general and particular editors have been very generous in this important matter of indexing.

The other two volumes introduce us to new works, one Greek and one Latin. We now have the first half of Xenophon's "Cyropædia," edited and translated in adequate form by Walter Miller, although here and there, as was inevitable, the English version does not show quite the easy grace of the original. We observe that this volume extends only to four hundred pages, and so avoids the faults of flimsy paper and blurred printing which have been complained of in so many of its Greek predecessors. This amelioration may be due to the accident that the "Cyropædia" is too long to be crowded into a single pair of covers, and is short enough to be comfortable between two pairs; but we should like to believe that the managers of the publication have seen a light, and are going to reform. They have still, however, a good deal to learn in regard to the manufacture of books. Even in this volume of the "Cyropædia" the leading is unnecessarily erratic. A little mechanical intelligence would have made a very pretty book out of one which can still be recommended as a convenient edition of the first great piece of historical fiction in Western literature.

With the Suetonius and the Xenophon comes also Cicero's "De Finibus," from the editorial hand of H. Rackham, of Christ's College, Cambridge. We have followed the translation through a good many pages, and have found the technical, or half-technical, terms skilfully transferred to English, and the movement of the original well preserved. The printing, particularly the justification of the pages, is by no means above reproach.

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A short treatise on "Quantity and Accent in the Pronunciation of Latin," by F. W. Westaway (Cambridge University Press; 75 cents net), will be welcomed also by American teachers as giving in brief compass the results of the most recent study of Latin accentuation. The author is a devout follower of Professor Postgate, who has done so much to bring about a correct pronunciation of Latin in England, and seems inclined to follow him even when he should not be followed. Thus it is contrary to common-sense to suppose that in the reading of prose the Romans elided, weakened the final m, and ran the words always together. This would make the first chapter of the *Bellum Gallicum,* which is given as a specimen, a monstrosity. That in the case of certain combinations of words something similar occurred may be true. The author believes in slurring rather than elision of vowels—but here, too, the matter is not one of universal rule, but of the behavior of individual words. This can be easily gathered from the very statements of Cicero which Postgate quotes to prove the opposite. The statements with regard to verse and prose accent are sound, and the numerous examples make the little book valuable for drill purposes. Especially amusing is the author's sharp handling of the customary English pronunciation in his preface.

The edition of Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War with Hirtius's supplement, by T. Rice Holmes (Oxford: Clarendon Press; 8s. 6d.), is intended not only for schools, but for teachers and general readers who have neither time nor inclination to study Mr. Holmes's large works on Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul and Ancient Britain. Accordingly the greater part of the commentary is devoted to critical discussion of the narrative itself and of the Latin text. Numerous references to the larger works make the further study of the various statements a simple matter, though often unnecessary. In the constitution of the text the editor is a pronounced adherent of Meusel, to whose greatness as a critic of Cæsar he has paid generous tribute in a recent number of the *Classical Quarterly.* He preserves his independence, however, in many passages. The discussions are always clear, and almost always convincing, sometimes assuming too much technical knowledge on the part of the reader, and frequently marred by references to books and articles inaccessible to most students. Throughout the commentary are scattered notes on syntax and style, obviously intended for very young students. Mr. Holmes says he has aimed to avoid giving any information which the learner can easily acquire for himself through the medium of grammar, dictionary, or such other books as he may fairly be supposed to have. In that case, "he may fairly be supposed to have" very little, for the majority of these notes are infantile in their quality and comport very ill with the value of the rest of the work. An extensive and very readable introduction covers the usual subjects that we look for in introductions to Cæsar, but these are treated with a sense of mastery and independence which we have come to associate with Mr. Holmes's works. Judging from the books in common use in the United States, this edition would not be suitable for school use, but it would be invaluable for the teacher of Cæsar, in affording him the material with which to illuminate the story to his pupils. The text of this edition has been reprinted with very slight changes, which are summarized in the *Classical Quarterly,* VIII, 164, in the Riccardi Library of the Medici Society (London; £1 1s.).

The second volume of Prof. C. E. Bennett's monumental "Syntax of Early Latin" (Allyn & Bacon; $4), which follows the first after an interval of four years, is devoted entirely to the syntax of the cases. Mr. Bennett observes the same method of treatment in this volume as in the former; copious bibliography, exhaustive and in many cases complete citations of examples, and a restrained and judicious discussion of current theories. In regard to the original force of the cases he now inclines to the local as against the grammatical theory in all of them except the nominative. In so doing, he abandons his former view of the genitive as an adnominal or grammatical case, because such a theory, he says, requires the genitive to be used with nouns alone in early Latin, whereas it is plain that this case was used with verbs even in the *Ursprache.* But such an assumption is unjustified and obscures the fact that at the beginning the distinction between noun and verb must have been merely one of usage, and many so-called verbs must have had the nominal idea prominent in the earliest usage. The goal-idea, too, which Mr. Bennett now accepts as the fundamental idea of the accusative, can be just as readily deduced from the grammatical function ascribed to it by most scholars. Fortunately, however, as he himself says, the theory of origin is usually of small importance in deciding upon the proper classification of different examples, and few critics will be disposed to find much fault with his analysis. In a large work of this kind there must be many passages about the interpretation of which scholars will differ, but on the whole the probability so far as this examination has gone lies usually with the author.

"The Roman Elegiac Poets," with introduction and notes by K. P. Harrington (American Book Co.; $1.50), is a very serviceable selection from the elegies of Catullus, Tibullus, Propertius, and Ovid. A careful and adequate introduction sketches the history of this style of composition in Greece and Rome, and dwells with more detail upon the four poets whose poems are included. All recent literature seems to have been consulted, but with critical and sober judgment. The commentary, which appears together with the critical notes on the same page as the text, is excellent, but sometimes over minute, and marred by references to inaccessible books. We miss, however, any summary of the stylistic peculiarities of the different authors, and this is the more to be regretted in the case of Propertius, who seems in many places not to have written Latin at all, if Postgate's analysis of his style is to be accepted. English renderings of his peculiarities often show what we would like Propertius to have written, rather than what he did write. The inclusion of critical apparatus on the same page as the commentary is an improvement on the customary critical appendix. Still, such notes are of doubtful value in an edition which is designed to meet the needs primarily of undergraduates. Since the manuscript variants are rarely made the subject of comment, they might well be left out altogether. This book was, as Professor Harrington tells us, begun many years ago by his father, the late Prof. C. S. Harrington, and many of the notes are followed by his initials. In its completed form it is a worthy monument to the dead as well as a valuable addition to our list of college textbooks.

Three new Latin beginners' books have recently been added to the already extensive list of such books: "Introduction to Latin," by J. C. Kirtland and G. B. Rogers (Macmillan; 85 cents); "Latin Lessons," by M. L. Smith (Allyn & Bacon; 80 cents); "First Latin Book," revised edition, by C. W. Bain (Heath & Co.; 90 cents). Two of these aim to teach Latin, while "Latin Lessons" aims also to "make Latin seem alive." To this end every lesson is preceded by a familiar Latin quotation, such as State mottoes, legal phrases, etc. Some stories of old Rome hold up the ideals of old Roman virtue, while an appendix treats of the value of Latin in science, mathematics, and English. Five Latin songs with music are also added. The reading exercises are almost confined to detached sentences. Much attention is paid to English derivatives, every lesson containing five English words to be traced back to Latin. Much drill is demanded, but though the vocabulary and syntax are Cæsarian, no particular desire is indicated to prepare immediately for Cæsar. The "Introduction to Latin" does, on the other hand, have Cæsar particularly in view. Hence the vocabulary and formal arrangement are more carefully adapted to early reading in mass. Extensive selections from Eutropius, Nepos, and simplified Cæsar are inserted frequently, beginning with the seventeenth lesson. In the vocabularies some attention is paid to English cognates. The explanations are simple and clear. A feature is the employment of the new grammatical terminology, hence we find past for imperfect, harmony of tenses for sequence of tenses, etc. The "First Latin Book" is essentially a new book, though purporting to be only a revision. Vocabulary and syntactical treatment have been modified to lead directly to the reading of Cæsar. A new and distinctive feature is the insertion of extensive reading lessons at definite intervals, beginning with the thirteenth lesson, designed to serve as reviews of the previous sections, and to interrupt for several days the steady learning of forms. The variety of opinion indicated in these books is interesting. Mr. Bain thinks introductory lessons on English grammar essential, Miss Smith agrees, while Mr. Kirtland denies their value absolutely. Miss Smith regards the study of English derivatives as essential, Mr. Kirtland tolerates it, and Mr. Bain looks upon it as a frill. Extensive reading is urged by Mr. Bain, seconded by Mr. Kirtland, subordinated by Miss Smith to the other features. But all three are good books and show everywhere experience and pedagogical skill.

Prof. W. S. Davis, the well-known writer of the classical novels, "A Friend of Cæsar" and "A Victor at Salamis," has prepared an elementary handbook on Greek Private Antiquities under the title "A Day in Old Athens" (Allyn & Bacon; $1.25). The book purports to set forth the experiences at Athens of a visitor in the year 360 B. C. The tourist lands at Piræus, follows the outside road to Athens, visits the marketplace, then the home of a well-to-do gentleman. In connection with this he gives all the necessary information as to the various members of

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the family—shows the position occupied by the women and the slaves, with chapters also on the children. A visit to the law-courts, which are described, is waived in favor of a session of the public assembly in the Pnyx, with its wrangling orators and excitable listeners. Other chapters treat of the physicians, trade and manufactures, amusements, country life, etc. The style is vivacious, the information reasonably accurate, and the whole presentation interesting. The book will find its widest use in the schools, but it will also appeal to older readers who desire an interesting rather than a learned sketch of life in Athens.

The question as to the composition of the Homeric poems has not been prominent in recent years, most scholars having tacitly agreed that the time and labor spent on this problem might have been more profitably spent in other ways. The book of Austin Smyth on "The Composition of the Iliad" (Longmans; $1.75) comes therefore as a distinct surprise, but not an unpleasant one. For Mr. Smyth presents a new point of view, and argues withal with such vivacity and cleverness that the reading of the book is a delight. This is due perhaps to the fact that Mr. Smyth is librarian of the House of Commons, and thus brings a new atmosphere into this driest of regions. The object of the essay is, as he frankly tells us in the preface, "to demonstrate that the Iliad of Homer at one time consisted of 13,500 lines, neither more nor less, divided into 45 sections of 300 verses each, with major divisions after the fifteenth and thirtieth of these; from which it follows that the remaining 2,193 verses, which appear in our present texts, are more recent additions and ought to be removed." This he proceeds to do, and he does it with such plausibility and skill that we are often almost convinced against our will. Thus the first book consists of 611 lines, with a natural pause after v. 311, leaving just 300 lines for the complete episodes of the second part. In the first part, out of the 311 lines 11 contain a list of the chiefs of the Lapithae inserted by Nestor in his speech to the kings. This list is entirely rejected by Leaf, and some of the verses had been regarded as spurious before. But the omission of this list leaves just 300 lines for the first section. Of course, many of the sections do not yield so readily to the treatment, but involve violent transpositions and unjustifiable excisions, and, likewise, of course, no poet ever worked out such a careful numerical scheme, but the discussion is, nevertheless, most entertaining. In a short appendix on the Odyssey Mr. Smyth presents a similar scheme in accordance with which this poem originally contained 11,700 lines divided into 26 sections of 450 lines each, leaving but 410 too many in our texts.

CELTIC.

The past academic year has been marked by the publication of three important contributions to Welsh philology: "A Glossary of Welsh Mediæval Law," by Timothy Lewis (Longmans, Green & Co.; $5 net); "The Welsh Vocabulary of the Bangor District," by Prof. O. H. Fynes-Clinton (Oxford University Press); and "A Welsh Grammar, Historical and Comparative," by Prof. J. Morris Jones (Oxford University Press). The first two make valuable additions to Welsh lexicography, concerning which the existing sources of information are far from being either complete or trustworthy. The only comprehensive Welsh dictionary, that of William Owen Pugh, though indispensable to the student, nevertheless antedates the era of exact philological knowledge or method. It is based largely upon texts which were imperfectly edited, and contains much misleading speculation, not to say invention, on the part of the compiler. The more trustworthy work which was begun by the Rev. D. Silvan Evans never passed the letter D. Consequently scholars who need to go beyond the purely practical vocabularies of the modern language have been at a loss for adequate help, and all additions to their resources are most welcome. Mr. Lewis's book, though it is of the nature of a special glossary, being based upon the legal texts in the "Black Book of Chirk," contains in reality a large amount of material of use for students of literature and history, and supplements extensively the existing vocabularies of mediæval Welsh. Mr. Fynes-Clinton's work, which deals with the other end of Welsh development, chronologically speaking, namely, with a contemporary dialect, is no less important as a contribution to the knowledge of the language. The tendency of Welsh grammars and dictionaries has been in some degree towards the construction of an artificial speech, and such a description of actual usage as Mr. Fynes-Clinton has produced serves as a valuable corrective. By the testimony of those whose acquaintance with spoken North-Welsh authorizes them to judge, he has done his work well; certainly it gives evidence of sound method and careful execution. We would question, however, without meaning any disparagement of the book, whether the author's enthusiasm for phonetics has not carried him in one respect too far. If he had arranged the words under their ordinary spelling and added the phonetic notation, instead of making the phonetic the primary arrangement, there would surely have been no loss in accuracy, and the work would have been more convenient for rapid reference.

More important still than these excellent dictionaries is Prof. Morris Jones's grammar. Its appearance has been long awaited, and one may say without hesitation that the expectations of scholars have been fulfilled. Now for the first time there exists a comprehensive account of Welsh phonology and accidence of all periods, historically treated. The author is not only a scholar of high attainments, but also an accomplished writer of Welsh prose and verse. He is therefore well fitted for the task on which he has spent unstinted labor for many years, and he has produced a monumental work which is not likely soon to be superseded. He has, of course, his personal bias and limitations, and these are reflected here and there in the character of the book. His knowledge of general philology, or even of the Celtic languages outside of Welsh, is much less thorough than of Welsh itself, with the result that his work on the comparative side is not so masterly as on the historical and descriptive. He has, too, a proneness to rather bold theorizing, which he exhibited years ago in a striking essay on the non-Aryan elements in Welsh syntax (published in the appendix to "The Welsh People," by J. Rhys and J. B. Jones), and the same readiness for conjecture appears in many doubtful etymologies in the grammar. Perhaps too much space is given to this debatable material, but it does not particularly impair the value of the work. The elementary student will probably ignore such matters in any case, and the trained scholar will find it easy to distinguish between statements of ascertained fact or principle and statements of theory. In one other respect Professor Jones's personal leaning may expose his work to criticism. By virtue, probably, of his training and activity as a bard, he is a jealous protector of the best literary traditions, and condemns many laxities in the practices of modern writers. The purpose of his work, then, is partly normative, to establish standards of diction and construction, and he has already been charged with something like purism. But this again does not make the grammar less valuable, so long as facts of usage are not suppressed in the interest of any of the author's preferences. On the contrary, the foreign student, in particular, profits greatly by the use of a work in which the refinements of usage are competently discussed.

Celtic scholars are still very ill provided with such encyclopædic helps as have long been available in the fields of classical or Germanic philology. Although the grammars of Pedersen (for general Celtic), Thurneysen (for Irish), and, most recently, of Morris Jones (for Welsh) have made a great body of strictly linguistic knowledge conveniently accessible, no Müller's *Handbuch* or Paul's *Grundriss* has yet been compiled to codify the facts of Celtic ethnology, antiquities, mythology, and literary history. For even commonplace information on these subjects Celticists are dependent either on miscellaneous and scattered works or on such private collectanea as they happen to possess, and the burden of both instruction and investigation is much increased by the necessity of keeping together a mass of bibliographical data. The National Library of Ireland has consequently rendered a very welcome service in publishing a "Bibliography of Irish Philology and of Printed Irish Literature" (Dublin: Stationery Office, 1913). This is an admirably arranged catalogue of the published materials relating to the Irish language and literature in all periods. Much information concerning manuscripts is also included, though no attempt is made to catalogue their unpublished contents, and the time is hardly ripe for such an undertaking. The portion of the work dealing with literature is minutely subdivided so that, while it does not to any considerable extent set forth chronological development, it affords an excellent conspectus of Irish literary production. The catalogue deserves praise throughout for its fulness and accuracy, as well as for its arrangement. Such omissions as are noted will be published by the editor, Mr. R. I. Best, in *Eriu*, the periodical of the Dublin School of Irish Learning, where it is intended that later instalments of the bibliography, announcing new publications, shall regularly appear.

It is not often that we have to record the appearance of the third volume of a work after an interval of forty-two years from the publication of the second. But this is the case with Dr. P. W. Joyce's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places" (Longmans, Green; $1.75 net), of which the first two parts

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were published in 1869 and 1871, respectively, and the third part reached us shortly before the death of the author, a few months ago. The value of the treatise has long been recognized—indeed, until very recently it was the only substantial source of information on the subject—and it is a satisfaction to have preserved in print the additional materials that Dr. Joyce collected through so many years. In the earlier volumes a great deal of space was given to the discussion of principles; to the explanation of the various circumstances to which place-names owe their origin, and of the phonetic development of Gaelic names in English. The actual lists were thus introduced largely as illustrations of the processes described. But in the present volume such explanatory matter is reduced to a short introduction, and nearly the whole book is made up of a compact dictionary. The quantity of new material presented is, therefore, considerable. Throughout the whole work the author has endeavored to make a trustworthy record of native usage in the pronunciation of Gaelic names, and this testimony will be of permanent value even in cases where the etymologies he proposes have to be abandoned. For the most part, too, his etymologizing is of a sober sort, which demands serious consideration. In one respect the third volume seems oddly contemporaneous with the other two. The authorities cited are chiefly men of the older generation—O'Donovan, O'Reilly, Pictet, and Lewis—and one gets the impression that Dr. Joyce did not follow closely the grammatical literature of the last twenty years.

The reason for this may be that he was primarily an historian rather than a philologist. His principal work was his "Social History of Ancient Ireland" (2 vols., Longmans, Green; $7.50 net), of which he brought out a revised edition also in the last few months of his life. This treatise, which has practically superseded O'Curry's "Manners and Customs," has taken its place as the chief book of reference on ancient Irish institutions. While hardly more than a beginning of critical scholarship has been made in the field, and while Dr. Joyce lacked the special equipment in philological science, or in the history of mythology and religion, to enable him to approach the solution of some of the most difficult problems, his very wide knowledge of the facts of Irish tradition and his lucid and sensible presentation of them will make his book indispensable for at least a generation. The new edition, so far as we have been able to discover, is only slightly revised. A few pages of notes are added, and the author acknowledges in the preface certain corrections sent him by Dr. Kuno Meyer, of which he says he has made use. But the pagination is hardly disturbed at all, and we have not found that the author's opinions on controverted questions have been either modified or supported by new arguments. Little account, too, seems to have been taken of the publications that have appeared between the two editions. Thus, in the chapter on the subdivisions of population there is no mention of Professor MacNeill's important paper in the Proceedings of the Royal Irish Academy for 1911. Again, in the discussion of human sacrifice (the existence of which is denied in rather sweeping terms), though the author could hardly have seen the treatment of the subject in the "Kittredge Anniversary Papers" (pp. 185 ff.), he might be expected to have cited the piece of evidence brought forward by Dr. Kuno Meyer in *Eriu*, II, 86. But we would not seem to dismiss the book, or Dr. Joyce's career, with a word of disparagement. By his fruitful labors, continued to ripe old age, he rendered a service to Irish scholarship such as was given by very few men of his generation, and his "Social History," however much opinion may change as fresh knowledge is acquired, will always remain a worthy monument.

ECONOMICS.

In "The Economic Organization of England" (Longmans; 90 cents net), Prof. W. J. Ashley has gathered together a course of lectures which he delivered before the Colonial Institute of Hamburg. They are similar to the brief course which he has been in the habit of giving for the last few years at the University of Birmingham, and are an admirable philosophical survey of English economic history from the self-sufficing manor of the thirteenth and the narrow gild of the fourteenth centuries down to the gigantic iron amalgamations, shipping rings, and other monopolistic combinations of the twentieth century. He does not argue theories about manorial and gild origins, but begins directly by describing concrete institutions as they actually existed in mediæval England. If he omits much that one expects to find in a textbook of economic history, he also enriches his pages with thoughtful suggestions of his own and mature conclusions on the suggestions of others. He has an apt way of quoting or characterizing great thinkers of the past to show how their thinking may be a cause or a reflex of changes in the economic sphere. Therefore his volume, though intended for beginners, has food for those who already know something of the subject. After surveying the increasing strength of the powerful associations in which capital and labor are organized against each other, and after recounting the inevitable failure of such expedients as profit-sharing and coöperation, this student of history, teaching in a great industrial centre, comes to a conclusion which is worth quoting as much for its sane historical-minded optimism as for the knowledge and experience on which it is based:

> Society is feeling its way, with painful steps, towards a corporate organization of industry on the side alike of employers and employed; to be then more harmoniously, let us hope, associated together—with the state alert and intelligent in the background to protect the interests of the community. The world has never yet had complete individualism; it will never, I believe, have complete socialism, for the egoistic sentiment is as permanent an element in human nature as the social. It has to create a working compromise suited for each age. . . . This is the lesson of that newer philosophy of social organisms which is based, as by Gierke, on the study of history.

Mr. George Guest, barrister-at-law and headmaster of St. Paul's School, Bournemouth, is writing a "new concentric" school history of England. In three successive parts he proposes to deal respectively with social, constitutional, and politico-imperial affairs. The first part, "A Social History of England" (Macmillan; 40 cents) is a good elementary outline of economic development with brief chapters on social life and with some illustrations. It is adapted for high-school rather than college students. This may explain in part why half the volume is devoted to the centuries prior to the Tudors; the main features of town and country life in the Middle Ages can be more simply stated and easily comprehended than the complex world-wide economic phenomena which resulted from the Industrial Revolution. There are a few minor inaccuracies, but the book is clearly written and looks quite teachable.

The London School of Economics and Political Science has already to its credit a long list of monographs written by various lecturers and students of the school, under the general editorship of the director, W. Pember Reeves, formerly High Commissioner for New Zealand, and under the immediate control of such distinguished scholars as Sidney Webb and Hubert Hall of the Public Record Office and secretary of the Royal Commission on the Public Records. Recent additions to the series are "A Select Bibliography for the Study, Sources, and Literature of English Mediæval Economic History" (King & Sons), and "Emigration from the United Kingdom to North America, 1763-1912," by Stanley C. Johnson (Dutton; $2 net). The bibliography, which has been compiled by the members of Mr. Hall's seminar, lists more than three thousand titles, and is well indexed. It is very useful, as such a work is bound to be, but its value is somewhat impaired by the failure to add critical comments to the volumes entered, an omission not entirely rectified by the admirable series of prefaces and introductions to the sections.

Mr. Johnson's volume, in origin a dissertation approved for the degree of doctor of science in the University of London, is of more general interest than doctoral dissertations usually are. It contains a great mass of information about emigration from the United Kingdom to the United States and Canada during the last 150 years. The preliminary survey, dealing with the period after 1763, is, however, misleading as far as averages are concerned, in that it interprets a very unusual movement from Scotland during the 'seventies, due to the rent-racking policy of Scottish landlords, as if it were part of a normal outflow. The work becomes trustworthy only after 1815, when definite statistics are reached, but the best sections are those that concern the conditions of emigration at the present time.

HISTORY.

MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN.

Among the Clarendon Press English school texts is Macaulay's "War of the Succession in Spain." This brilliant little review of Lord Mahon's History first appeared in January, 1833, and for fourscore years has continued to delight and misinform countless readers. High-school pupils may still enjoy Macaulay's sharp contrasts in black and white, but they are now judiciously warned as to his inaccuracies and exaggerations by the good introduction and notes of C. T. Atkinson, a specialist in military history. He follows Col. Parnell in pointing out the almost certain unauthenticity of the "Memoirs of Capt. George Carleton," which were relied on by Mahon and Macaulay, which have been ascribed to Defoe, but which were probably by Swift.

Another English school text is W. Murison's careful edition of Burke's "Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents" in the Pitt Press series (Putnam; 80 cents net). This is one of Burke's best constructed and most effective earlier pamphlets. He published it in 1770

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after submitting it for approval and suggestion to Lord Rockingham, and he aimed to show that the existing discontents of the time were due to George III's attempts at personal government. The editor has added a brief sketch of Burke's life, a helpful analysis of the form and contents of the pamphlet, and sufficient explanatory notes.

The expectation that a teacher of history who has written successful novels on Imperial Rome, the Crusades, and the Lutheran Reformation could write a history which would be interesting and accurate is fulfilled in the "Mediæval and Modern History" of William Stearns Davis (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50). As the volume is intended for secondary schools the author wisely obtained the coöperation of N. S. McKendrick, of Phillips Exeter Academy, who provided helpful apparatus for teachers in the way of questions, suggested readings, and tables and maps. The books for reading topics might well have been extended somewhat beyond the few handbooks indicated. Also the suggested list of books for a small school library includes several titles which in the reviewer's opinion might have been better replaced by others. The period covered by Mr. Davis extends from the Battle of Adrianople to that of Kirk-Kilisseh, but no undue prominence is given to military history. More is said about men than institutions, as is wise in a school textbook. The amount of space allotted to events is increasingly ample as recent times are approached; there is a longer discussion of Napoleon than of Charlemagne, and of the "March of Democracy" than of Feudalism. The narrative is readable and accurate; with the aid of inoffensive heavy type it is also cast in a form which ought to be easy for the pupil to remember and review. Occasionally the author indulges in words which the pupil will not understand, and once in a word which he himself does not understand—"immanence" (p. 205), where he means "imminence." We are dubious as to the author's practice of putting much of his information into footnotes; it may relieve the text and train pupils in the laudable practice of noticing what is at the bottom of the page, but it disturbs the continuity of the narrative. The illustrations are fresh, authentic, and appropriate. It is more elementary and less full than the similar texts of West, Harding, Myers, and Robinson.

The purpose of Prof. A. L. Cross, in his "History of England and Greater Britain" (Macmillan; $2.60) is "to trace the course of events by which England and the adjacent countries became the United Kingdom, and by which the United Kingdom has become the greatest sea power ever known, has developed a foreign commerce larger than that of any other country of the world, and has fashioned an empire with an extent of territory nearly a hundred, and a population almost ten, times its own." In the course of eleven hundred pages he fulfils this purpose well. His method is strictly chronological. He dispatches the pre-Norman period with commendable brevity in seventy-five pages. He gives in admirable fulness the subsequent growth of English institutions, especially in the Tudor and Stuart periods; this is wise, for American students are the inheritors, in large part, of these institutions and should know how they came into being. The nineteenth and twentieth centuries receive sufficient attention to give a clear account of the Irish, imperial, and other important political questions. Military history is largely suppressed. Especially welcome, on the other hand, are the excellent characterizations of the more important works in the long range of English literature from Beowulf to Browning. They ought to help much towards the greater coöperation between teachers of history and teachers of English, which is one of the desiderata of modern education. The defect of the book is that it fails to make the reader grasp in a concrete form the way in which institutions actually worked. Professor Cross describes the contents of the great statutes, names the law courts, touches upon the features of the manorial system, and chronicles the cabinets; but he does not make the inward eye of the imagination really see these organisms functioning as realities; he has not the gift of Seebohm and Maitland. There is nothing particularly original in the volume, unless it be the unusually good chapters on the later Stuarts. Professor Cross has been content, as he modestly says in his preface, to light his candle at the torches of others. But sober judgment in the matter of proportion and clarity of exposition is of more moment in a textbook than originality. In his admiration for England he slides rather too gently over such less fortunate episodes in her diplomacy as Disraeli's policy towards Turkey in 1878 and Sir Edward Grey's assistance in the strangling of Persia. It is a book for colleges rather than high schools. Except for the absence of illustrations (which we regret), and the considerable attention to the history of the last fifty years (which we rejoice in), Professor Cross's volume approaches, on the whole, in arrangement, fulness of information, matter-of-factness, accuracy, and emphasis on purely political history, more nearly than any other textbook we happen to know, to S. R. Gardiner's justly famous "Student's History"—which is high praise.

Pictures, broadsides, and medals relating to the flight of James II and the assumption of the British throne by the Prince of Orange appropriately make up the bulk of the illustrations in the third volume of Professor Firth's sumptuous edition of Macaulay's History of England (Macmillan; $3.75 net). This volume carries the narrative from the presentation to William of the proposal by the Whigs for a descent upon England to the raising of the siege of Londonderry and the battle of Newton Butler. It is no easier to say, concerning this volume than either of those preceding, whether the ballads or the caricatures are more amusing. In not a few instances, the palm would go to the supposedly serious production, as in the case of "Popery's Downfal, and The Protestants Uprising by the Crowning of King William and Queen Mary," to the tune of "Hey boys up go we," with its emphasis upon the economic phase of what we must in consequence term the transaction:

> But now all heartily rejoice
> to see this happy day;
> With Bells, with Bonfires, and with voice,
> as very well we may;
> That we have got a King and Queen
> that will encourage Trade,
> That by the Papists villany
> was very much decay'd.

Beside this outburst, the fun in the cartoon of "The Protestant Grind-Stone" or "The Quakers Synod" seems pale and thin. How much this kind of thing adds to the value as well as to the interest of an historical work, in reproducing the atmosphere of the time, it is unnecessary to argue.

AMERICAN.

Prof. William B. Munro's "Selections from the Federalist" (Harvard University Press) will be a boon to teachers and students who have been deterred, by the bulk of the original work, from using in the classroom what is still, for many purposes, the best introduction to the historical study of American federal government. The text is that of the first collected edition of 1788, and the selections, based upon the editor's experience as a teacher, are drawn from the first fifty numbers. There are no footnotes save such as appeared in the original edition, but Professor Munro has provided a brief introductory account of the formation of the Constitution.

"The Period of Discovery," by Joseph V. McKee and Louise S. Roemer (Century Co.; 50c.), is an American historical reader for fifth-year pupils. The stories and bits of narrative—the former kept as closely as possible in accordance with facts—and the poetical selections are well chosen, and the language and style of presentation are such as to appeal to children. The last five stories deal with elementary problems of citizenship from the standpoint of the young immigrant. The plan of the book conforms to the New York Regents' Syllabus of History.

We hesitate to affirm that Prof. Willis M. West's "American History and Government" (Allyn & Bacon) is the best high-school textbook of American history now on the market, because high schools, like the courses which they offer, present almost infinite diversity in standards, methods, and aims. In scholarly thoroughness and completeness, however, as well as in the arrangement of its matter for practical classroom use, the volume certainly has no superior for schools which are willing to take the study of American history seriously. The distinguishing features are the combination of governmental or administrative topics with the historical narrative; the extended treatment of Western development, the labor movement of 1825-1840, and the recent "progressive" movement; and the elaborate use of footnotes for additional discussion or reference to documentary sources. With all its up-to-dateness, however, Professor West has not lost his sense of proportion, as is witnessed by the fact that less than one-fifth of his space is given to the period since the Civil War. The chief fundamental criticism of the book is its almost entire obliteration of military details. There are fifty-six maps and plans, and thirteen illustrations. The usual elaborate indications of collateral reading, in practice, we fear, honored in the breach as much as in the observance, are omitted, their place being taken by brief lists of books most valuable, with comments on the character and scope of each. A word should be said for the excellent mechanical make-up, which allows the book to lie open freely without breaking.

MILITARY.

A year ago Prof. Hans Delbrück, the distinguished editor of the *Preussische Jahrbücher* and student of military history, came over to London and gave in a couple of lectures, entitled "Numbers in History" (University of London Press), the conclusions by

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which he has been upsetting traditional notions as to the size of armies in ancient and mediæval times. Scholars have had to decimate the alleged size of the hosts which were defeated by the Greeks, Carthaginians, Normans, and Swiss, though they do not go quite as far as he does. Professor Delbrück's point is that nothing gives more pleasure to the soul of a people, nothing is more willingly narrated, than that a small host has conquered a greater; Henry V says at Agincourt—

> If we are marked to die, we are enow
> To do our country loss; and if to live
> The fewer men the greater share of honour.

So legend has been at work magnifying enormously the numbers of the defeated where a signal victory has been won by a small well-disciplined force. Having fought in the Franco-Prussian War, and being familiar with the problems of topography and food supply which arise in the case of really large modern armies, Professor Delbrück has shown statistically how preposterous are the figures of Herodotus. He has come also to the conclusion that victory in the past has been usually obtained because of discipline, organization, and martial spirit, not because of numbers or of bravery. Is his conclusion to be confirmed by the events of to-day?

SCIENCE.

PSYCHOLOGY.

William Glover's "Know Your Own Mind" (Cambridge University Press; Putnams; 60 cents) is an attempt to put into simple form the main tenets of the Herbartian psychology; and in reading it therefore one is carried back to a past age. It is difficult enough, in any event, to write a good elementary work on this subject; and such a task should not be assumed by one who, like the author, is unwilling to take the trouble to grasp the principles of psychology as they have been developed since Herbart lived.

William James's famous chapter on Habit in his Psychology has been reprinted in separate form in a neat little book (Holt; 50 cents net). Here appear his characteristics of thought and of style: breadth of knowledge; hazarding of hypotheses that, once stated, seem indisputable, at least while one reads; plenitude of illustration; a tendency towards colloquialism, and particularly, here, practical application of the results of the reasoning through which he has been carrying his reader. In the end, his consideration of what was apparently a purely mental phenomenon turns out to have important moral implications, and psychology seems a more philosophical ethic, if not a better-based religion. There is a bad arrangement on pages 15 and 16, where a note, having to do with the first line on page 16, is put at the bottom of the page preceding.

LOGIC.

There is an element of humorous paradox in the plan of Alfred Sidgwick's "Elements of Logic" (Cambridge University Press; 90 cents), which will nevertheless appeal to many teachers of the subject as resting upon a solid basis of truth. Part I is a presentation of the traditional rules of logic which treats them "as obediently as we can"; Part II explains how and why they are not to be taken too seriously. This comes very near the mark. No one is entitled to disregard the rules of logic who has not mastered them. Defective and archaic they may be, yet they still constitute our only systematic test for correct thinking; and with all their imperfections they are indispensable both as a discipline for the student and as a general guiding principle for mature thinking. The difficulty, as Mr. Sidgwick shows, is that, perhaps inevitably, they take all our meanings to be fixed, whereas, in point of fact, the meaning of every statement depends upon the purpose of making it, and the purpose is often obscure. This accounts for the various "risks of reasoning," all, it seems, reducible to the case of an ambiguous middle term, which are pointed out in Part II. The book is worth trying as a text. It should be suggestive to the teacher and, at any rate, an excellent introduction to the subject for the independent reader.

CHEMISTRY.

The teacher of organic chemistry in the college course often experiences an embarrassment in selecting a textbook. The book that is suitable for the highly specialized work of the university or technical school is likely to be too voluminous for his use. The field of organic chemistry is so large that even the smaller textbooks are apt to be somewhat terrifying to the student whose interest in the subject is not vital, and he is in danger of being overwhelmed and discouraged by the mass of material that he has not time to assimilate. Prof. John T. Stoddard, of Smith College, has endeavored to meet this difficulty in his "Introduction to Organic Chemistry" (Blakiston's), His book is written frankly for the college student, whose needs the author can appreciate by reason of his long experience as a college teacher. Avoiding long discussions of the more intricate problems, he presents the general and fundamental principles of the subject in a clear manner and at the same time makes the student familiar with the uses of the various substances that are considered. The result is a book of about 400 pages that is readable, teachable, informative, and logical. It is up to date, and even the more advanced student will find in it much that will repay him for reading it. Numerous tables take the place of extended description of many comparatively unimportant compounds.

In "Some Fundamental Problems in Chemistry, Old and New" (Van Nostrand; $2.50 net), by Professor E. A. Letts, of Queen's University of Belfast, the author undertakes to contrast certain ancient views of the constitution of matter and the mediæval ideas in regard to transmutation with the modern conception of electrons and the discovery of the changes which radio-active elements experience; the modern discoveries proving, "as Ladenburg said, 'Dass unter den Griechen und Römen Männer waren, die sich in jeder Beziehung mit unsern Denkern messen konnten,' and secondly, that even in science, history may repeat itself." The first ninety pages are devoted to "The Older Chemistry," and most of these are taken up with the discussion of Dalton's atomic theory and the periodic law, and include the discovery of the argon gases. "The Newer Chemistry" occupies a little more space, and includes an excellent summary of the work on radio-activity, the theory of electrons, Lockyer's views on the question of inorganic evolution, and Arrhenius's "Worlds in the Making."

It is undoubtedly true "that the discovery of radio-activity has effected a revolution in our fundamental ideas concerning the nature and properties of matter"; and we have convincing evidence that the chemical elements are not independent creations, made up of individual atoms. The thought of some genetic relationship among the elements is, however, almost as old as Dalton's atomic theory; and, starting with Prout's untenable hypothesis, was revived in Döbereiner's triads, Newlands's law of octaves, and, most seriously, by Mendeleef's illuminating presentation of the periodic relations existing between the properties of the elements and their atomic weights. Probably no thoughtful chemist for nearly a century would have been willing to deny the possible divisibility of the atom. Experimental evidence of the composite nature of the atom and transmutation of the elements, a logical corollary of these speculations, was, however, unlooked for. Mme. Curie's discovery of radium and the work of Rutherford, J. J. Thomson, and their fellow investigators have brought the demonstration. But the observed transmutations are hardly to be considered as a realization of the old alchemical doctrine, "namely, that it is possible to transmute one element into another." Helium has been obtained from radium, and some thirty "transient" elements, whose estimated life periods vary from a fraction of a second to thousands of years, have been listed as products of the disintegration of uranium, radium, and thorium. Their appearance, however, is spontaneous, and no approach has yet been made to a controlled or directed transmutation of matter, which was the alchemist's idea in his dream of the production of gold from the baser metals. Those whose imagination has been stirred by the extraordinary properties of radium and the discoveries which have followed, will be much interested in this well-written and readable book.

PHYSICS.

An elementary textbook for schools and colleges on "Sound," by Dr. J. W. Capstick, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, which has been added to the Cambridge Physical series (Putnam; $1.40), is well up to the standard of that excellent series. In many ways sound is the most difficult subject in physics to teach. Its theory is complicated, not only in its physical aspects, but also because it lies in the borderland between physics and psychology, where much is debatable. But the most serious difficulty comes from the fact that it seems necessary to deal with the art of music in its relations to acoustics. Dr. Capstick meets these difficulties by subordinating the mathematical theory to the experimental development of the subject, by almost entirely omitting psychological aspects, and by giving a brief and well-considered discussion of music and musical instruments. The text is excellent, clear, concise, and well arranged, and, like its companions in the series, it is the result of careful study and not a mere compilation from previous books.

A valuable book on the "Electrothermal Methods of Iron and Steel Production," by John B. C. Kershaw, has been published by the Van Nostrand Co. ($3 net). The production of iron and steel by the method of the electric furnace is expanding rapidly, yet there has been hitherto no carefully prepared handbook on the subject. The author wisely limits his discussion to the practical

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applications of electric heating to this industry. The various forms of electric furnaces are described in detail and the question of cost of each is discussed. Especially useful are the appendices, which contain lists of furnaces in operation or under construction, and of patents issued.

"Thresholds of Science" (Doubleday, Page) consists of several simply written monographs on mathematics, zoölogy, botany, chemistry, and other branches, by recognized scholars. They were first published in France, and designed to enable laymen to learn, and to guide their children in learning, something of what one means by scientific facts and laws of nature. This laudable aim is well followed in C. E. Guillaume's little book on "Mechanics" (50 cents net), where a few admirably written general directions in the study of nature are further explained in connection with such topics as motion, force, acceleration, the work of forces, motionless forces, rest, oscillation, calculation in mechanics, impact, resistance of materials, and artillery. The work, which contains numerous illustrations, is well worth the attention of those whose knowledge already includes far more than is here presented.

ASTRONOMY.

The object and plan of the slightly enlarged edition of Prof. F. R. Moulton's "Introduction to Celestial Mechanics" (Macmillan; $3.50 net) are the same as in the original edition. The object is to give the reader such an all-round acquaintance with the elements of the mathematical theory as will be well worth while if he does not continue the study and as will at the same time enable him to specialize in any one of several directions. The central theme in mathematical astronomy being the theory of absolute perturbations, this subject is treated with special fulness both analytically and geometrically. The work is pedagogically as well as scientifically good: problems are stated before they are attacked and the steps in the solution are indicated in advance. The most notable revision occurs in the treatment of methods of determining orbits. The usual presentations of the methods of Laplace and Gauss have been departed from with no little gain in respect of mathematical intelligibility. The famous problem of three bodies is well handled, but we miss any and all reference to Sundman's immortal theoretical solution.

MATHEMATICS.

In his "Memorabilia Mathematica" (Macmillan; $3 net), Prof. R. E. Moritz has brought together in very attractive form over one thousand utterances regarding the nature and worth of mathematics. The quotations, which vary in length from a line to several score of lines, are all of them in the English language. The list of more than three hundred authors, which represents all historic times, includes not only mathematicians, but students of natural science, poets, philosophers, theologians, statesmen, and historians. Each passage is referred to its source. Several criteria have been employed in determining admissibility, as eminence of authorship, value of content, and felicity of expression. Thus Shakespeare contributes three passages, Goethe ten, Euripides one, Henri Poincaré five, Newton seven, Klein twenty, Laplace eleven, Leibnitz and Descartes each seventeen, De Morgan fifty, Plato nine, Emerson two, Pliny and Daniel Webster each one, and so on. It is the first English work of its kind, and, except for a small number of very important deliverances, it does not duplicate Rebière's "Mathématiques et Mathématiciens" or the "Scherz und Ernst in der Mathematik" of Ehrens. It always has been and always will be necessary to depend for the most part upon borrowed estimates, absolute independence of authority being an unattainable ideal. Herein is the justification of Moritz's collection. It is difficult to imagine how any scholar, much less any student or teacher of mathematics, could fail to find delight and instruction in this admirable book.

For a book by an Englishman, A. S. Redgrove's "Experimental Mensuration" (Van Nostrand Company; $1.25) is an extreme reaction from the procedure of Euclid. It is an attempt to teach geometry by observation and experiment. It does pretend to demonstrate theorems, but as it dispenses with fundamental or primitive assumptions, strict demonstration is of course impossible. The author, however, is a practician and thinks "straining after absolute truth" (the exact sum of the angles of a triangle, for example) "is foolishness." He appears to think that to follow the geometric ways of Euclid is like teaching natural history out of Aristotle or Pliny or like going to the alchemists for chemistry. The work itself shows the author to be less wayward than his professed tenets indicate. His readers will learn much useful matter resembling geometry, but they will not learn geometry.

Mr. C. M. Bookman's "Business Arithmetic" (American Book Company; 65 cents) is an up-to-date book, excluding puzzles, entirely practical in its content, computing profits on selling price, insisting on accuracy and rapidity of computation.

Dr. L. Silberstein's "The Theory of Relativity" (Macmillan; $2.50) is probably the best scientific exposition of the subject in any language, and it will be eagerly read by such physicists as are mathematically qualified for the task. The modern doctrine here treated has its roots in classical mechanics and physics, and this genetic connection of the old and the new is clearly and fascinatingly explained in the introductory chapter. The manner reminds one of W. K. Clifford's happiest expositions. The following nine chapters place in one harmonious perspective the various contributions of Lorentz, Einstein, Minkowski, and others. Equipment for reading the work includes a knowledge of differential equations, and the elements of quaternion and vector analysis.

NATURAL HISTORY.

"The Natural History of the Farm," by J. G. Needham, professor in Cornell University (Ithaca, N. Y.: The Comstock Publishing Co.; $1.50 net), is a compact encyclopædia of information in regard to the original sources of farm products. The wild plants which can be used as food or utilized in other ways in our daily life and the improved varieties derived from these plants are here dealt with in an attractive manner. But the author does not stop at this point. He proceeds to trace the history of the wild and domesticated animals of the farm, and makes many excursions into allied fields of biology, by which the reader is enabled to form a sufficient picture of the life of lower organisms in brook and marsh, as well as forest and meadow. The guidance through these paths wisely leads through the three principal seasons, October to January, February to May, and June to October. Practically nothing has been omitted in this comprehensive survey, and yet the treatise has been so skilfully constructed that it is not at any point a wearisome enumeration of details. It is agreeable reading throughout. Especial attention should be called to the marked value of the handbook as a help in sound "Nature Study." It is well arranged for class-work and for private study without a teacher. It accomplishes what Professor Huxley desired to see done in all departments of natural history, and in a broader way what he illustrated so well by his elementary works.

"Beyond the Pasture Bars" (Century; 50 cents net), by Dallas Lore Sharp, is an excellent little book for the child student of wild life, and not too juvenile for his elders. It is intended for use as a school reader, and it should surely stimulate the curious youngster to go beyond the schoolroom through the pasture bars into the woods and fields where furred and feathered things make their homes. The book is attractively illustrated by Bruce Horsfall.

FARMING, HORTICULTURE, AND FORESTRY.

The Business of Farming. By William C. Smith. Cincinnati: Stewart & Kidd Co. $1.25 net.

The Farm Woodlot: A Handbook of Forestry for the Farmer and the Student of Agriculture. By E. G. Cheyney and J. P. Wentling. New York: Macmillan & Co. $1.50 net.

A Pilgrimage of British Farming. By A. D. Hall. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50 net.

The business of farming is not the same thing as the science of agriculture. Business, we may suppose, can never be merely a science. Its human element is too strong—its traditions and usages, above all, its emotions. The business of farming, certainly, is wrapped up in sentiment. Farm journals reek with it, and farm literature of a more serious kind is always dropping into poetry. Mr. William C. Smith, "of Indiana," is, we gather, a practical man. He has made a good deal of money out of farming, and has written a book on "How to Grow 100 Bushels of Corn Per Acre on Worn Soils," and "The Book of Vetch." Under the title, "The Business of Farming," he might have been expected to produce a sternly matter-of-fact treatise. In the event, his practical advice might have been given in a fifth of the space here devoted to it. What he has to say, excellent in itself, is said with a good deal of repetition and diffuseness; and a very large proportion of his pages are hortatory or lyrical. He is a man with a theory, but fancies himself even more as a man with a message.

His theory is the now familiar but still insufficiently heeded one that business and economic principles ought to be applied to farming as to other industries. In beginning, he does well to emphasize an ancient paradox—that though farming is the oldest and most important business of mankind, it is still the most carelessly and inefficiently conducted business. Farmers in the mass still live upon hand-to-mouth relations with the soil, mak-

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ing, where they can, an immediate profit at the expense of the future. The once fertile lands of Palestine are a desert; the homestead farms of New England are worn out and many of them abandoned; even the rich prairie soil begins to show exhaustion. Again, farmers are still relatively unprosperous because they have not learned to work together; co-operation is still in its infancy. Until the farm comes to be recognized as a manufacturing plant, to be equipped and administered for the greatest possible efficiency, its methods will still be fumbling and its output uncertain. But Mr. Smith, though he has chapters on administration and marketing problems, is really more interested in questions of soil-making and preservation. The steady exhaustion of the soil seems to him the great crime and folly of the modern world, and he has a panacea which makes him impatient of milder remedies. The theory that crop rotation is in itself sufficient to maintain the fertility of our soils he treats with scorn:

Even our Government, through its great Agricultural Department that has done so much to make the business of farming flourish, has promulgated the infamous doctrine that our soil is in no real danger of exhaustion, and that soil will not wear out, and yet almost within a bird's-eye view from the dome of our splendid Capitol at Washington thousands of acres of agricultural lands lie abandoned which less than one hundred years ago were occupied by a hospitable, chivalric people living in stately Southern homes and mansions surrounded by fertile fields abounding with a plethora of farm produce.

These lands were farmed under the best methods then recognized, including a proper rotation of crops. Yet they are exhausted and abandoned. The remedy for such soils is deep ploughing, followed by the continual use of cover or soiling crops to provide the humus without which no soil can keep its health. Mr. Smith makes some extraordinary assertions about the prevalence of shallow ploughing. An investigation of ploughing done in the great corn belt, upon all kinds of soils, with all kinds of ploughs, from the walking plough to the great tractor, showed the average depth ploughed to be three and one-half inches, instead of the nine inches which this author thinks to be the minimum of profitable ploughing. That a pair of horses should find it difficult to plough sod-land deeper than five or six inches is easy to understand, but that the big tractors, with their gang ploughs, so often pictured turning up a dozen furrows at once, should have the same difficulty is surprising. Few of them, says Mr. Smith, are able to plough nine inches, unless "at too great expense for fuel, or too slow a speed for economy." As for what is here said about methods of cultivation, and the use of soiling crops, we find little that is new, but much that is worth harping upon. The rest of the book is "Grange" rhetoric, including the usual back-to-the-land peroration.

"The Farm Woodlot" is at the other extreme of farm literature. Its authors are the director and an associate professor of the College of Forestry in the University of Minnesota. They here undertake "a handbook of forestry for the farmer and the student of agriculture." Their tone is strictly impersonal and scientific—not a lyrical note in these pages. A tree, to them, for all we know or need to know, is an object of care and use, and not of worship. They stand upon the safe if not enchanted ground of definition: "The study of the growing of trees in forest plantations is sylviculture. . . . Sylviculture is primarily an art and as such it is based on a science. This science is sylvics. Sylvics is the knowledge of the sylvicultural characteristics of forest trees," and so on. What could be neater, less provocative to erring feet? It is like walking the ties of a railway track. And this is as it should be, for emotion in a handbook were as untimely as statistics in a song. A chapter on Dendrology provides a compact key to the common trees of the farm woodlot, with some admirable illustrations. Other chapters lay down the principles of sylviculture, of renewing and thinning woodland so as to maintain it as a permanent and profitable part of the farm; of the nature and uses of different woods; of methods of ornamental planting; and the book closes with a chapter or two on the wider aspects of forestry. Finally, there are some miscellaneous tables and a not too exhaustive Index.

Still another type of book is "A Pilgrimage of British Farming." The author is a former director of the Rothamsted experimental station, and has published, besides a record of the Rothamsted experiments, three manuals on "The Soil," "Fertilizers and Manures," and "The Feeding of Crops and Stock." This writer avoids the sentimental manner on the one hand, and the dry-as-dust on the other. The present book, which appeared originally in the form of a series of contributions to the London *Times*, is solid without being wooden. It describes a series of expeditions undertaken during the years 1910-1912—particularly trying years for the British farmer—among the farms of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

The conclusion to which this careful first-hand observation leads the author is that British farming is in a sound and normal condition. No wholesale reforms are necessary: "There is nothing revolutionary in sight; America and the Colonies, so often quoted as examples of modern farming, have nothing to teach us, and the lesson of the highly farmed Continental countries—Holland, Belgium, Denmark—is not the transplantation of this or that industry, but that intelligence and foresight will be always finding openings for profit in various directions." The British farmer, in short, knows his business; what he needs is to pay a little stricter attention to it, to take more care with his bookkeeping, to coöperate more, to give that unremitting attention to detail which is necessary for success in other businesses.

Conditions of British farming are, of course, very different from our own. The tenant farmer is the rule, and the system, this author believes, has worked well in the main—perhaps better, under all the conditions, than any other system could have done. That many of the larger landlords are now selling out their farming land is due to the fact that the tenant has commonly had the better of the relation. Advances in rent have not kept pace with increased taxation; improvements have been at the landlord's charge. They amounted, in the course of a generation, in one instance cited here, to more than the original value of the property. The doctrine of *noblesse oblige* has been costly to the landowner. "The ownership of land in this country is not entirely treated as a matter of business; there is a give and take, a rough partnership, between tenant and owner, which finds its working expression in the fact, vouched for by a recent departmental inquiry, that land is mostly let at rents below its competitive value." And the British tenant farmer's easy relation with his landlord, with a system which leaves him free to put his capital into his business, is not offset by the problem of labor, which is becoming so acute in America. In many districts farm laborers are plentiful at 14 to 16 shillings a week, and the writer speaks repeatedly of a pound a week as liberal pay—about half what the same grade of labor fetches here, under the most favorable conditions.

For the future of farming in the United Kingdom our pilgrim has no fear, and of the present he speaks with a touch of that quiet enthusiasm which, sentimentalism apart, real love of the land seats in the hearts of men: "Whatever the future may have in store for our agriculture, we can still be proud of its state to-day, for it need fear no comparisons whether we regard it as a living art or as a mother of men."

"The Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture," in six volumes (Macmillan; $6 per volume), has in Prof. L. H. Bailey an editor possessed of remarkable qualifications. He is a clear writer, untiring in his industry, and has a gift for selecting hard-working associates. The present work bears evidence of having received an immense amount of careful supervision, so that it may be regarded as a safe guide for reference with respect to generic and specific descriptions and cultural directions. A good many of the figures in the text leave much to be desired as regards attractiveness, but they all appear to be truthful, and that is, after all, the main thing. This work should find a place in every public library, and have a warm welcome to the shelves of every horticultural amateur. Its value as a work of reference would be increased by prefixing to each volume the list of abbreviations which are employed.

"The Beginner's Garden Book," by Allen French (Macmillan; $1), is admirable for children and for adults, as well. It is written in a conversational style, and, since its counsels are wise and up to date, the volume might well serve as a handy guide to the proverbial commuter "whose talk is" not "of bullocks," but of early vegetables better than his neighbors'. The skill with which the author leads his pupils through some perplexing mazes in gardening is worthy of all praise.

The surprising advance which scientific agriculture has made in the United States during the past few decades is clearly marked by the respect which now is shown on all sides for our national Department of Agriculture, our experimental stations, and our agricultural schools. But perhaps this remarkable advance is even better shown by the multiplicity of excellent textbooks covering the whole range of the subject. One of these is devoted to the best methods of cultivating our cereals, legumes, and fibre-plants. "Field Crop Production," by George Livingston, professor in Ohio State University (Macmillan; $1.40), a textbook designed primarily for use in agricultural schools, is instructive to general readers, and is very interesting as an illustration of the new methods of teaching. More than this, it shows plainly the lines in which recent substantial advance has been made in one of the specialties. Some of the engravings are good, a few seem superfluous, and more than one can be termed un-

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intelligible. With this slight reservation, the handy treatise can be cordially commended to the attention of those who wish to learn the best modern systems for cultivating field crops. It is a useful member of the useful series which Professor Bailey is editing under the title, Rural Textbook series.

"Productive Orcharding, Modern Methods of Growing and Marketing Fruit," by Fred C. Sears, is one of Lippincott's series of Farm Manuals, edited by K. C. Davis. In his work on orcharding, Professor Sears, though doubtless writing with the agricultural student especially in mind, has given much common-sense and straightforward advice to the man who already owns and operates an orchard, or who vaguely dreams that he may some time own one. Every detail relative to character of soil, varieties of fruit and their purchase, the cultivation of the orchard and the implements needed, pruning, fertilizing, cover crops, spraying, harvesting, storing, marketing, and advertising is fully covered. The book is thoroughly readable, and impresses one with the fact that the author has not only gained experience worth passing on to others, but, to use his own phrase, "he has got the fun out of the fruit business that he ought."

Prof. George E. Day states in his preface to "Productive Swine Husbandry" (Lippincott) his twofold object in preparing the book, namely, that it shall be one to "serve as a textbook for agricultural students," and also one to be placed "at the disposal of the busy farmer as a reference book which will give him, in concise form, the findings of the best experiment stations in regard to the problems involved in the successful handling of swine." The subject-matter is comprehensive and painstakingly explicit. The numerous breeds of swine are discussed in detail. One section deals with the results of experiments in swine feeding; marketing and curing occupy another section. There are some dissertations to make the mouth water, not on roast pig exactly, but on "Wiltshire sides," a delicacy "especially designed to meet the requirements of a certain class of English consumers." Professor Day's chair is in Ontario Agricultural College—the connection is obvious. As is the case with all of this Lippincott Farm Manual series, the illustrations and colored plates are numerous and excellent.

Walter H. Godfrey's "Gardens in the Making" (Scribner; $2 net) is not a book for the man with a small plot of ground at his disposal; rather it is for the man of ample acres, who can divide his garden into many gardens, all forming together one harmonized scheme. Mr. Godfrey is not a grower of plants; he is an ally of the gardener. He concerns himself solely with the art of garden-design, and shows with much wealth of detail how to prepare the way for the gardener, so that the surroundings will form almost as much the environment of home life as the house itself. He is prolific in ideas, and discusses with authority such things as entrance gates and lodges, approaches, courtyards, boundaries, walls and hedges, flowers, enclosures, borders, paving, terraces, balustrades, furniture, and numerous other features that make the perfect garden. The book is valuable to the ambitious man. It is copiously illustrated with useful designs by the author and Edmund L. Wratten.

Mr. Gifford Pinchot's book, "The Training of a Forester" (Lippincott; $1 net) is more than the title implies. Although ostensibly for the information of prospective students of the profession, it is equally informing upon the broader aspects of forestry as a public concern. In fact, it furnishes a summary, and a very interesting and illuminating summary, of the growth and present activity of forestry in the United States. The matter of the book is roughly divisible into three parts. The first deals with the nature of forests and the meaning of forestry. The second and largest describes the practice of forestry in the United States, with particular and vivid reference to the United States Forest Service, not only its organization, administration, and functions, and the details of the work performed by its officers, but also the ideals and qualities which should (and usually do) actuate the forest officers themselves. The third part expounds the academic and technical training that the intending forester must obtain, and indicates the kind of openings that lie before him. As a whole, the book is a document of distinctly educational value, and contains much of suggestive comment, as well as of striking illustration and foresight. Many readers will remember how greatly responsible is its author for the wonderful progress he describes; all will realize that forestry, both as a national policy and as a career, is established, and that in point of opportunity for service and intellectual demands it may without exaggeration be classed among the educated professions.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

The applications of science to the affairs of common life and scientific explanations of familiar experiences have, in these days of emphasis on vocational training, become part of the regular instruction in many institutions. As a result, formal textbooks are appearing to meet the needs of these new courses, covering the ground which has hitherto been cultivated by writers of more or less popular presentations designed for general reading and home instruction. "Chemistry and Its Relations to Daily Life," by Professors Kahlenberg and Hart, of the University of Wisconsin (Macmillan; $1.25) is a textbook for students of agriculture and home economics in secondary schools. The first half of the book of 379 pages is on elementary chemistry. This is followed by chapters on paints, leather, textiles, rubber, the soil, fertilizers, plant and animal life, foods, and poisons for farm and orchard pests; and the concluding sixty pages are filled with directions for laboratory experiments. The practical half of the book is good, the chapters on agriculture being especially interesting and informing. In the chemical part, the atomic and molecular theories have been deliberately omitted and the chapter on the gas laws and reduction of gases to normal volume, which is always a feature of an elementary chemistry, is absent. There is no mention of hydrolysis, or of the ionic theory. In fact, there is no theory to aid or confuse the pupil—all is plain statement of fact with no attempt at explanation; and this in a book of this kind is certainly better than going to the other extreme. Where formulæ and chemical equations are so freely used, however, a brief discussion of the atomic theory is desirable; and the pupil surely should not be taught that H stands for 1 gram of hydrogen, Cl for 35.5 grams of chlorine, O for 16 grams of oxygen, etc. (page 43). It may possibly be true that "those who have completed it successfully will doubtless have gained information and sound scientific training which will compare favorably with that received in the pursuit of courses usually taken in preparatory schools," but with the requirements for college entrance what they are the book does not offer the material necessary for the examinations. The appearance of the book is marred by the excessive use of italics for emphasis of words and sentences, and a number of illustrations which do not aid the imagination, such as those of "a carboy of hydrochloric acid," "a can filled with liquid sulphur dioxide," "a barrel of white lead," etc.

To meet the needs of pupils in home economics who have had no previous instruction in chemistry is the especial purpose of the "Elementary Household Chemistry," by Professor Snell, of McGill University (Macmillan; $1.25 net). At the same time, he entertains the hope that "it may also be found useful in the many institutions in which the student of household chemistry approaches the subject after a preliminary training in general chemistry." Though much shorter than the book of Kahlenberg and Hart, this little volume includes more applications of chemistry and a more satisfactory chemical treatment. In addition to most of the subjects dealt with in the former, we find here discussions of light and illumination, fuels and the relation of combustion to heat, much attention to the composition of foods with many tables of composition in the Appendix, and a fuller treatment of the proteins, soaps, etc. Chemical theories are not avoided, and those which are given are stated simply and well. It hardly seems worth while, however, to take four pages for a statement of the doctrine of ionization of which no practical application is made. Directions for 171 well-chosen experiments are included in the text, and the book is adorned with twelve full-page portraits of eminent chemists, ranging from Mrs. Ellen H. Richards to Robert Boyle. An unusual feature is the shortness of the chapters, which are forty-three in number and average about six pages in length. The longest are those on textile fibres of vegetable origin (14) and on dyeing (13). The book is well adapted to its purpose, giving much interesting and valuable information and a good elementary idea of chemical principles.

Those who are teaching physics as an aid to housekeeping rather than as a science will find "The Physics of the Household" (Macmillan), by Prof. Carleton John Lynde, a useful text. The treatment differs from the usual preparatory school texts mainly by taking illustrative examples and applications from household appliances, and in using the English system of measures. The author's pedagogical thesis, that young students should learn physics in order to acquire knowledge which they will use in everyday life, is open to serious objection if, as many still believe, the purpose of learning is to develop the mind rather than to provide a livelihood. Such texts as this should be restricted to vocational courses; as a general thing, it is poor policy to limit one's education to daily needs.

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BUSINESS MANAGEMENT.

The first volume, entitled "Business Management," of the ten volumes of the Library of Business Practice (Chicago: A. W. Shaw Company) gathers into 140 of its 198 pages some exceedingly interesting talks by men who have tackled the problems of executive management, and "made good." Among those who thus speak, or are quoted parenthetically, are twoscore or more successful merchants, railway presidents, and manufacturers. Some are known nationally, others are now building a national reputation for the future. These are mainly "self-made" men, and it is surprising to find as one reads how the dreaded "efficiency" and "scientific management" pop up again and again under other names. These big men lean hard on their subordinates. They control great organizations through marvellous systems of executive reports, whereby the condition of the business is shown on a blackboard, or a single sheet of paper laid on the president's desk—behind which are all the work orders, job tickets, reports, records, books, and other paraphernalia of system. The lesson to be learned is that right systems for the acquisition and analysis of facts are an immense aid to any man, no matter what his life-work—and that, no matter how good the system, it won't work without a man of decision and action behind it. The A. W. Shaw Company, as publishers of "System" and "Factory," are perhaps as well qualified as any authority in the country to condense the big subject of business practice into ten compact volumes; for they possess a unique fund of business knowledge and a most unusual business library. The thoroughness with which the subject is treated in The Library of Business Practice is indicated by the forty-eight-page index to the ten volumes at the end of Volume I.

"The Job, the Man, the Boss," by Dr. Katherine Blatchford and A. Newcomb (Doubleday, Page; $1.50 net), is not the first book to point out the often haphazard relations of these elements in business; but the pages which it devotes to exposing the evil and discussing reasons for the adoption of the authors' particular system of correction will prove interesting reading, both to those uninformed as to the present tendencies in business organization and to recalcitrant employers who still regard scientific methods for the employment and training of workers as the idle dreams of sentimentalists. Briefly summarized, the plan implies substituting for hit-or-miss methods an employment department, whose principal function it is to obtain by time and study a correct analysis of every job and then to fit into it a human being possessing the requisite qualifications leading up to further developments in scientific management. This may imply a compromise with the existing limitations imposed by the character and mental type of the immediate superior or boss of the man to be engaged—or it may necessitate the substitution of a boss who can work more harmoniously with the most desirable type of employee for that particular job. Such a department judges applicants both by observation of the physical man and by analysis of his answers to many test questions. The practical success of the plan depends—as with all ventures into the field of efficiency—upon a human equation of high degree and many terms. The winning over of the general management and the department heads, the training of persons competent to resolve human beings into their elements and to tag each with an analysis by which the efficiency engineer can determine treatment and function—these are not as easy as to determine the relative weights of iron, carbon, tungsten, phosphorus, and sulphur in a bit of steel, and to relate that analysis to the output of a lathe. The success of Dr. Blatchford's personal efforts is doubtless due in a measure to something peculiar to herself. Such an employment department as she recommends is right in principle, but should not receive arbitrary powers at the start. It should be checked by actual results and prove its worth; for we suspect that it will not always have Dr. Blatchford's own keen discernment, though it may have learned the details of her system. "The Job, the Man, and the Boss" is written in an interesting and by no means technical style. It is not too long nor too dogmatic, and the plan it presents is sufficiently elastic to meet the needs of a large or a small organization.

The publication of a Canadian edition of the Alexander Hamilton Institute's Course, "Modern Business," Vol. I, Applied Economics, by James Mavor, and the appearance of the fourth edition of Robert J. Frank's "Science of Organization and Business Development" (Chicago: Laird & Lee; $2.75 net), are prima facie evidence that books on business are more and more widely read. Twenty years ago there were few authoritative works on business practice. To-day there is a large and rapidly increasing library of information to which the business man can turn for his own education, as well as that of his organization. Business colleges, of which there used to be widespread distrust among practical business men, are in better position to help young men and women to a grounding in first principles. State universities, scientific schools, and other educational institutions are devoting their trained powers of analysis to the study of applied economics, and their work is supplemented by that of specialists in law, finance, organization, production, scientific management, organized selling, advertising, and so on. The fact that the average small business man or manufacturer, and many a big one, too, is still largely wasteful and inefficient, is due in great measure to his ignorance or contempt of sources of information. He does not yet realize that there are certain fundamental principles of business operation established in practice, analyzed and formulated by authorities, and available in published form; while there is in existence an increasing number of trained experts who can help him to establish economic principles in his business. Neither does he realize that thousands of the "hard headed," "practical" men, whom alone he respects, are giving up dead reckoning for scientific navigation. Nevertheless, the situation is encouraging. The elimination of business diseases is not to be accomplished by legal restriction and punishment alone, but through the voluntary adoption of prophylactic measures by the men who control in business councils. Anything that encourages this movement helps the cause of national wealth, individual prosperity, and the elevation of the workers to a higher plane.

There is much to commend in the two books, "News, Ads, and Sales: The Use of English for Commercial Purposes" (Macmillan; $1.25), by John Baker Opdycke, and "Business English and Corresponcence" (Ginn; $1), by Roy Davis and Clarence H. Lingham. They respond to the challenge of those critics who summarize the indictment of modern education by the business man, citing the inability of the average college graduate to write a good letter, to express himself well as a salesman, or readily to adjust himself to the current of industrial life. They are honest attempts to supply a definite and admitted lack in the equipment of the average youth. The authors would doubtless not insist upon destroying the ideals of college life, nor upon lessening that insistence upon the greater importance of the "higher things." But they do plead for a few hours in school or college in which the youth's vague idea of the "larger life beyond" shall be subjected to definition. "Business English" presents first a concise course in grammar, punctuation, spelling, and the fundamental principles of composition. It then makes the application to various forms of business correspondence, including the important subject of collections, and to advertising, reports, summaries, etc. The appendices include postal information, proof-reading, filing correspondence, and definitions of commercial terms. Practical exercises are suggested with each chapter. The extent to which the more subtle application is made will depend on the teacher. The chapter on The Advertisement, for example, amounts to nothing more than a few definitions, and the chapter on The Selling Letter is but the briefest introduction to the subject, and is not as stimulating as the chapter on The Friendly Letter. Nevertheless, the book could be studied with profit not only by the boy or girl at school, but by many who have been carrying on business correspondence for years—and committing the most egregious blunders daily.

"News, Ads, and Sales" deals with the same subject, but assumes a preliminary course in English composition along industrial and commercial lines. Part I of the book is devoted to the newspaper, and is highly informative and instructive, though it may result in a rather idealistic conception of the newspaper as it is. Part II, on Magazines, Advertising, and Salesmanship, is largely suggestive and interrogative. It presents a series of lessons, each consisting of ten or more questions which cannot be answered without investigation and observation. Unless the teacher is a man of broad business experience, this method may well result in a very erroneous conception of advertising and selling. Even in a school of journalism or a distinctly commercial course in school or college, the instructor will find many of these questions difficult to answer. In the more academic institution the teacher will be as much a learner as the pupil. Furthermore, to cover in a thorough manner the work outlined would far exceed the time limitations. To suggest to the average pupil that he write an advertisement for a product of whose manufacture and markets he knows nothing, or formulate a sales plan for real estate, shoes, or pianos, is absurd on the face of it, unless it be accompanied by hard study under expert assistance and direction. In the "Foreword" the author states that it is not his aim to make great newspaper men, advertisers, magazine writers, or salesmen of our pupils, and the use of the book in a secondary school can be justified only if this is kept in mind. In so far as the course develops observation and the acquisition of facts by the average pupil, it is invaluable, and should aid in developing creative abilities along specialized lines.

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